May 1999

A Study of the Roles of Assistant and Associate Deans in Institutions Accredited by the Commission on Colleges of the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools

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A STUDY OF THE ROLES OF ASSISTANT AND ASSOCIATE DEANS IN INSTITUTIONS ACCREDITED BY THE COMMISSION ON COLLEGES OF THE SOUTHERN ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND SCHOOLS

A Dissertation

Presented to

the Faculty of the Department of Educational Leadership and Policy Analysis

East Tennessee State University

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Education in Educational Leadership

---

by

Darcey Marlene Cuffman

May 1999

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APPROVAL

This is to certify that the Graduate Committee of

Darcey Marlene Cuffman

met on the

26th day of March 1999.

The committee read the examined her dissertation, supervised her defense of it in an oral examination, and decided to recommend that her study be submitted to the Graduate Council, in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education.

Chair, Graduate Committee

Signed on behalf of
the Graduate Council

Dean, School of Graduate Studies

ABSTRACT

A STUDY OF THE ROLES OF ASSISTANT AND ASSOCIATE DEANS IN INSTITUTIONS ACCREDITED BY THE COMMISSION ON COLLEGES OF THE SOUTHERN ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND SCHOOLS

by

Darcey Marlene Cuffman

The purpose of this quantitative research study was to analyze the roles of assistant and associate deans in the colleges or schools related to the disciplines of business, education, and arts and sciences within four different classifications of institutions [Research Universities I and II and Doctoral Universities I and II], as described by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. Respondents in the study came from institutions accredited by the Colleges of the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools. Respondents included 191 associate deans and 60 assistant deans, of whom 154 were men and 97 were women.

Chi-square statistics were used to analyze assistant and associate deans' perceptions of 1) whether their positions are line or staff; 2) whether they would recommend changes in their positions; 3) whether each was interested in becoming deans at their present institution or another institution. Three composite scores from factor analysis were analyzed by three-way ANOVA: 1) Curriculum, 2) Administrative Leadership and Relationships, and 3) Budget. A second statistical analysis included t-tests and a one-way ANOVA for Composite #2, Administrative Leadership and Relationships.

Results showed no significant differences in 1) whether assistant and associate deans perceive that deans differentiate their positions as line or staff; and 2) between associate deans and assistant deans in regard to their interest in becoming deans at their institutions. From the factor analysis, results showed no significant differences in Composite #1, Curriculum, for the independent variables: gender, college, gender by college, dean by college, and gender by dean by college. For Composite #2, results showed no significant differences for the independent variables: gender, college, gender by dean, gender by college, dean by college, and gender by dean by college. For Composite #3, Budget , results showed no significant differences for the independent variables: gender, college, gender by college, dean by college, and gender by dean by college. For the second statistical analysis for Composite #2, Administrative Leadership and Relationships, results showed no significant differences between colleges/schools and leadership, and the level of dean and leadership.

The results of this study showed that 1) associate deans perceived their positions as line versus staff; 2) associate and assistant deans did not perceive their positions as stepping stones to deanships at their present institutions; 3) associate deans believed their positions were stepping stones to deanships at other institutions; and 4) assistant deans did not perceive their experience at their present institution as a stepping stone to deanships at their present or other institutions. Female associate deans had the most responsibility for Composite #1. Male associate and male assistant deans had approximately the same responsibilities for Composite #1, Curriculum. More associate deans than assistant deans had responsibilities for Composite #2, Administrative Leadership and Relationships and Composite #3, Budget.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The roles and responsibilities of academic deans have expanded during the last 30 years (Ayers & Doak, 1986). Increasing numbers of students (especially older and more culturally diverse students), as well as the need to respond to increasing governmental regulation and policies, have influenced the expansion of these roles. Because the additional responsibilities result in the need for more administrative support and assistance for deans, many universities have added *assistant* and *associate* dean positions.

According to several researchers, deans serve both internal and external constituencies (Abramson & Moss, 1977; Geddes, 1985; Miller, 1989). Internal constituencies usually include the college or school faculty, department chairs, academic programs and services, and students. In addition, deans serve as conduits for institutional policies and procedures from the university administration to their college faculty (Millet, 1978). For example, deans work with faculty and department chairs to develop college or departmental goals and objectives that coincide with and fulfill the institution's mission. External constituencies generally include the community (e.g., citizens, business, industry, government), other higher education institutions, and professional associations such as accrediting agencies (Abramson & Moss; Geddes; Miller). Meeting the increasing demands from both internal and external constituencies has markedly increased the workload of deans (Roarden, 1970).

Like deans, assistant and associate academic deans also have dual roles, as they serve two primary constituencies (Ayers & Doak, 1986; Dill, 1980; George & Coudret, 1986; Kindelsperger, 1982). First, assistant and associate deans assume administrative roles to fulfill the mission of a college or school. Secondly, they serve their disciplines as faculty members expected to teach, conduct research, and perform public service. The

positions of assistant and associate academic deans form part of middle management in higher education.

In the relevant literature, debate about whether these positions are line or staff has become vigorous. George (1980) states that "comments about the middle position referred to the negative balance between authority and responsibility and the confusion between line and staff responsibility in the position" (p. 70). Kindelsperger (1982) found that 68.6% of the associate deans and 66.7% of the assistant deans perceived their positions as line positions. On the other hand, 17.1% of the associate deans and 22.2% of the assistant deans perceived their positions as staff positions. However, 14.3% of the associate deans and 11.1% of the assistant deans perceived their positions as *both line* and *staff* positions. According to Etzioni (1991), staff positions are "outside the regular chain of command" (p. 444), and "have no administrative authority whatsoever" (p. 444). People holding staff positions serve in an advisory capacity to those in line positions, whereas, line positions imply "a certain amount of autonomy" (p. 444), accompanied by specific duties or functions. Therefore, "in spite of important differences between the two approaches, staff authority in both is subordinate to line authority, and the line is identified with administrative authority and the staff with professional authority" (p. 445).

George (1980) found from a review of higher education and nursing literature, that "there is a lack of knowledge about and understanding of associate and assistant deans' educational preparation, roles and responsibilities" (p. 4). Kindelsperger (1982) determined from a review of literature about service functions in higher education that "it appeared that there were a variety of administrative levels reporting to deans of colleges and schools. One [researchers] found virtually no mention, however, in the literature about those line or staff positions which used the title of associate or assistant dean" (pp. 3-4). Although the positions of assistant and associate deans are more commonplace in colleges and schools today, they (assistant and associate deans) "have been virtually ignored in the research and writing on educational administration" (p. 4).

Previous studies of assistant and associate deans resemble mosaics without frames. For example, George's (1980) study provided a foundation for understanding the roles of assistant and associate deans in collegiate units of nursing. Later studies about associate and assistant deans in nursing focused on dynamics and dilemmas (George & Coudret, 1986), career aspirations (Larson, 1994), roles and responsibilities of associate deans (Lombardo, 1995), and leadership styles (Rogers, 1988). Kindelsperger's (1982) study paralleled George's (1980) study. Kindelsperger (1982) states that

> The management requirements of administering large universities have led to the addition of specialized administrative staff including those holding the titles of associate and assistant deans. Only one study, however, that of associate and assistant deans in schools of nursing, has addressed the roles of these kinds of deans directly (p. 84).

Abramson and Moss's (1977) study centered on deans', associate deans', and assistant deans' perceptions about their own qualifications, motivations, prior work experience, and formal education. In colleges of education, Ayers and Doak's (1986) study concentrated on the organizational relationship of assistant deans, associate deans and deans to college organizational management. Applegate and Book's (1989) study of colleges of education covered the roles, job responsibilities, and career development of assistant and associate deans. Other studies about assistant and associate deans incorporated various disciplines and specific topics. For example, in the field of pharmacy, Vanderveen (1988) investigated the management styles of deans, assistant deans, and associate deans.

The studies to date seem to highlight or reveal niches that need to be filled to make the mosaic of management complete. This study parallels both George's (1980) and Kindelsperger's (1982) studies. Instead of focusing on a specific discipline, a study was proposed for three colleges or schools: business, education, and arts and sciences. Instead of a study including responses from three groups (deans and assistant and associate deans), this study includes only assistant and associate deans' perceptions. The researcher

undertook a study to analyze the perceived roles of assistant and associate deans, to expand and update parts of the knowledge base currently missing in the research literature, or in other words, to fill in the complex but incomplete mosaic of university administration.

Statement of the Problem

Most studies involving the roles of assistant and associate deans have been discipline specific. Researchers tended to analyze their own disciplines. In general, such discipline-specific studies discussed job satisfaction, job responsibilities, role ambiguity, and role conflicts between being both administrators and faculty members. However, no studies found in the literature review compared and contrasted the roles of assistant and associate deans among different colleges or schools within four-year institutions.

Significance of the Problem and Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to analyze the roles of assistant and associate deans in the colleges or schools related to the disciplines of business, education, and arts and sciences within four different classifications of institutions [Research Universities I and II and Doctoral Universities I and II], as described by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching (The Chronicle of Higher Education, 1997). These three areas form a vital part of most higher education institutions.

A review of the literature shows that previous studies about the roles of assistant and associate academic deans have been discipline specific. This study provides a unique perspective by comparing and contrasting the roles of assistant and associate academic deans of higher education within institutions of different sizes and in different disciplines. By comparing and contrasting the roles of assistant and associate academic deans among four different levels of higher education institutions [Research Universities I and II and Doctoral Universities I and II], an analysis of the data should determine differences and similarities between staff and line responsibilities for these positions. Clarification of any

differences and similarities in the roles of assistant and associate deans could assist faculty considering administrative positions for professional growth and career progression. Other high-level academic administrators, and individuals considering or seeking a career in higher education administration, may also find the study pertinent.

Hypotheses

Based on a review of the literature, the study considers the following hypotheses (expressed in null form):

H_o1: There is no significant relationship between type of position and whether it is perceived that deans discern their positions as line or staff.

H_o2: There is no significant relationship between type of position and whether it is perceived that faculty discern their positions as line or staff.

H_o3: There is no significant relationship between type of position and whether it is perceived that assistant and associate deans discern their positions as line or staff.

H_o4: There is no significant relationship between assistant and associate deans on whether they would recommend changes for their position.

H_o5: There is no significant relationship between assistant and associate deans on whether they perceive their positions as a stepping stone to a deanship at their present institution.

H_o6: There is no significant relationship between assistant and associate deans on whether they perceive their positions as a stepping stone to a deanship at another institution.

H_o7: There is no significant relationship between assistant and associate deans on whether being an assistant or associate dean has affected their interest in becoming a dean at another institution.

H_o8: There is no significant relationship between assistant and associate deans on whether being an assistant or associate deans has affected their interest in becoming a dean at another institution.

H_o9: For Curriculum, there is no significant difference on the main effects for gender.

H_o10: For Curriculum, there is no significant difference on the main effects for dean.

H_o11: For Curriculum, there is no significant difference on the main effects for college.

H_o12: For Curriculum, there is no significant difference on two-way interaction for gender by dean.

H_o13: For Curriculum, there is no significant difference on two-way interaction for gender by college.

H_o14: For Curriculum, there is no significant difference on two-way interaction for dean by college.

H_o15: For Curriculum, there is no significant difference on three-way interaction for gender by dean by college.

H_o16: For Administrative Leadership and Relationships, there is no significant difference on the main effects for gender.

H_o17: For Administrative Leadership and Relationships, there is no significant difference on the main effects for dean.

H_o18: For Administrative Leadership and Relationships, there is no significant difference on the main effects for college.

H_o19: For Administrative Leadership and Relationships, there is no significant difference on two-way interaction for gender by dean.

H_o20: For Administrative Leadership and Relationships, there is no significant difference on two-way interaction for gender by college.

H_o21: For Administrative Leadership and Relationships, there is no significant difference on two-way interaction for dean by college.

H_o22: For Administrative Leadership and Relationships, there is no significant difference on three-way interaction for gender by dean by college.

H_o23: For Administrative Leadership and Relationships, there is no statistical significance between colleges and leadership.

H_o24: For Administrative Leadership and Relationships, there is no statistical relationship between males and females on leadership.

H_o25: For Administrative Leadership and Relationships, there is no statistical relationship between associate and assistant deans on leadership.

H_o26: For Budget, there is no significant difference on the main effects for gender.

H_o27: For Budget, there is no significant difference on the main effects for dean.

H_o28: For Budget, there is no significant difference on the main effects for college.

H_o29: For Budget, there is no significant difference on two-way interaction for gender by dean.

H_o30: For Budget, there is no significant difference on two-way interaction for gender by college.

H_o31: For Budget, there is no significant difference on two-way interaction for dean by college.

H_o32: For Budget, there is no significant difference on three-way interaction for gender by dean by college.

Delimitations

This study was limited to the target population of assistant and associate academic deans in schools and colleges of education, business, and arts and sciences from four classifications of higher education institutions. These classifications derive from the

Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching [Research Universities I and II and Doctoral Universities I and II].

Limitations

The results of the study can only be generalized to the assistant and associate deans from those classifications selected from the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of teaching in states covered by Colleges of the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools (SACS), a regional accrediting agency. The researcher is employed by an institution covered by SACS. The researcher is interested in learning about other institutions accredited by SACS. Individuals with titles such as "director" and "assistant to the dean" were not included in this study.

Definition of Terms

For this study, the following definitions were used:

College refers to "any of the schools of a university offering instruction and granting degrees in any of several specialized courses of study, as liberal arts, architecture, law, medicine" (Webster's New World Dictionary of the American Language, 1984, p. 279).

Doctoral Universities I "offer a full range of baccalaureate programs and have a commitment to graduate education through the doctorate. They award at least 40 doctoral degrees annually in five or more disciplines" (The Chronicle of Higher Education Almanac, 1997, p. 37).

Doctoral Universities II "meet all the criteria for Doctoral I institutions except that they award annually at least 10 doctoral degrees in three or more disciplines or 20 more doctoral degrees in one or more disciplines" (The Chronicle of Higher Education Almanac, 1997, p. 37).

Line Positions: individuals who are "accountable for program development and evaluation in areas of responsibility; accountable for personnel with the program[s] of responsibility" (George, 1980, p. 6).

Research Universities I "offer a full range of baccalaureate programs, are committed to graduate education through the doctorate, and give high priority to research. They award 50 or more doctoral degrees each year. In addition, they receive annually $40-million or more in federal support" (The Chronicle of Higher Education Almanac, 1997, p. 37).

Research Universities II "meet all the criteria for Research I institutions except that their annual federal support ranges from $15.5-million and $40-million" (The Chronicle of Higher Education Almanac, 1997, p. 37).

School refers to "a particular division of an institution of learning, esp. of a university (the *school* of law)" (Webster's New World Dictionary of the American Language, 1984, p. 1274).

Staff Positions: individuals who possess "expertise in an area, advises in that area, authority or advice confined to subject area" (George, 1980, p. 6).

Overview of the Study

Chapter One presents the statement of the problem, the research questions, the purpose of the study, the significance of the problem, the definition of terms, and the delimitations and limitations of the study. Chapter Two contains a review of relevant literature about the topic, including such topics as the role of deans, the roles of assistant and associate deans, the rationale for the positions of assistant and associate deans, the gender differences among assistant and associate deans, the differences between the roles of assistant deans and associate deans, and the roles of mid-level management in higher education. Chapter Three describes the research design, the population, the sample, the method of data collection, the method of data analysis, the instrumentation, and the pilot

study. Chapter Four reports the results and analyses of data for the study. Chapter Five describes major results, and offers conclusions and recommendations for future study.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter includes three areas: a brief review of the roles of academic deans, a review of the roles of assistant and associate academic deans, and an overview of the roles of mid-level management in higher education. The literature review provided a foundation for this study, primarily because it highlighted gaps that enabled the researcher to propose several hypotheses that might provide greater clarity concerning the roles.

Roles of Deans

For a university to succeed in its mission, administrators must rely on the accomplishment of its colleges [or schools] (Sandefur & Oglesby, 1982). In other words, "the colleges are the link between the academic departments and the central administration" (p. 4). Professional schools (e.g., business, education) and colleges of arts and sciences usually have their own deans (Millet, 1978). A dean, in cooperation with department chairs and faculty, generally facilitates the linkage for a college or school to meet the goals and objectives of the parent institution.

The role of dean is a "line position": deans report to top academic officers in their institutions (Miller, 1989), and they "represent the second rung in the executive-managerial ladder of academic management" (Millet, 1978, p. 54). Deans represent their colleges or schools to higher administration, maintain peer relationships with other deans, and meet externally with several constituencies, e.g., professional organizations, the surrounding community, and accrediting agencies (Abramson & Moss, 1977; Miller, 1989). Presidents commonly appoint deans (Trow, 1994), who do not usually have tenure in their administrative jobs, although they may have tenure as faculty members within their disciplines. Often, deans have previously been faculty members and/or department chairs (Abramson & Moss, 1977; Vanderveen, 1988), and they usually hold the rank of professor

in their discipline (Abramson & Moss, 1977; Vanderveen, 1988). According to Griesbach (1990), academic deans are middle managers that serve two masters, "both masters--faculty and administration--have different agendas as well as differing expectations for the dean" (p. 3).

A dean's daily schedule varies; deans habitually face a continuing barrage of paperwork, messages, visitors, and scheduled and impromptu meetings with department chairs, faculty, and students (Pincus, 1994). Miller (1989), in a study of deans of colleges of business, discovered that during a 45 hour week, deans spent 16% of their time with external groups, 8% with students, 25% with paperwork, 11% with faculty, 13% with department chairs or dean's staff, and 16% "in generating ideas, developing strategies, solving problems, and related activities" (p. 108).

Deans customarily maintain teaching, research, and scholarly pursuits (Abramson & Moss, 1977; Miller, 1989; Roarden, 1970; Vanderveen, 1988), both for self-gratification and to maintain their credibility and effectiveness as academic leaders (Roarden, 1970). However, when individuals become deans, their volume of publication usually declines because their administrative duties do not leave much time to maintain in-depth research programs (Abramson & Moss, 1977).

Through decentralization of higher education administration in recent years, the duties of deans have increased (Roarden, 1970). Formerly, many college and university presidents delegated functionary duties to various vice-presidents. However, deans now "assume control responsibilities as well as [give] academic leadership" (p. 273). Deans demonstrate academic leadership by exercising "the ability to recognize excellence in teaching, learning and research; in knowing where and how to intervene to strengthen academic structures; in the choice of able academic administrators; and in support for the latter in their efforts to recruit and advance talented teachers and scholars" (Trow, 1994, p. 270).

In American colleges and universities, deans usually have three primary functions: academic leadership, institutional or control activities, and team membership for all-around university policy formulation (Roarden, 1970). Academic leadership requires that deans have an appropriate understanding of all disciplines in their college or school. Pincus (1994) stated that, "the dean is the direct administrator not only for your department, but for many others; if the dean is weak in your area [discipline], your chances for strong administrative support are dramatically diminished" (p. 12). Institutional or control activities usually include the following:

> 1. more autonomous budget decisions,
> 2. greater accountability for student conduct,
> 3. more committee responsibilities (extending authority sharing within the college),
> 4. more autonomy in faculty recruitment, employment, promotions, and tenure decisions, and,
> 5. provision of due process mechanisms for faculty and student grievances. (Roarden, 1970, p. 274)

Kindelsperger (1982) also found that deans coordinate academic policy and curriculum, confer with the president, formulate strategic planning, and manage a unit's internal organizational development. University policy formulation, a recent innovation for deans, has resulted from decentralization of upper-level administration.

Deans do not normally have job descriptions; instead qualifications and the role a dean plays are usually outlined in an advertisement for a position. For example, Roarden (1970) stated that a dean "is to be a scholar, a democratic leader, a student of the social scene, a student of higher education, a group process specialist, an esteemed person, honest and courageous, and young" (p. 276). On the other hand, according to Millet (1978), "college deans, like department chairmen, are likely to learn their role on the job" (p. 55). Professional organizations exist to aid deans in their professional development, e.g., organizations in business, law, and arts and sciences (Millett, 1978). For example, Vanderveen (1988) stated that in pharmacy, "most deans found their management training to be acceptable and only a small percentage would definitely not choose to be an administrator again" (p. 146).

Geddes (1985) noted that leadership and planning form two primary facets of a dean's accountability. For example, Applegate and Book (1989) stated that "while faculty governance remains strong, there appears to be a stronger emphasis on management and accountability in the organization, especially for the dean" (p.5). Strategic planning for a college or school coincides with supporting its mission statement, goals, and objectives (Geddes, 1985). Strategic planning, a fluid, continuing process, "evolves from the need to make informed choices, determine priorities, establish appropriate goals and objectives, develop supporting programs, evaluate programs, feed evaluation results back into the information base, make appropriate adjustments, and start the cycle all over again" (p. 18). Information should include a description and analysis of the external environments (e.g., trends of a discipline or field), and internal environments (e.g., faculty achievements, students, university-level trends), and data about the image of a school or college (e.g., its strengths and weaknesses). Using strategic planning, administrators can allocate resources to maintain activities to support college or school goals and objectives.

Geddes (1985) stated further that "as resources become increasingly scarce, it is vital that a dean develop liaisons with other area institutions of higher education; liaisons which support the development of cooperative activities that maximize the utilization of manpower, resources, and facilities" (p. 19). Deans play a crucial role in the visibility of a college or school. For example, deans participate and hold elective office in professional societies, attend conferences (locally and nationally) and committee meetings (professionally and for the institution), participate in fundraising events, and maintain research and teaching activities.

Deans deal with political and academic realities every day. Dealing with declining state and federal funding and budget reductions, increasing tuition rates, and decreasing monies to support academic research (which in turn supports academic programs), while also trying to support a college or school and institution's mission statement with complementary goals and objectives, requires leadership by deans who are flexible,

creative, and willing to take risks to serve their colleges or schools. For assistant or associate academic deans to fully understand their roles, they must first understand the roles of deans (George, 1979).

Roles of Assistant and Associate Deans

A review of literature shows that previous studies examining the roles of associate and assistant academic deans have traditionally been specific to certain disciplines: law (Abramson & Moss, 1977; Kindelsperger, 1982; Sullivan, 1983); education (Applegate & Book, 1989; Ayers & Doak, 1986; Koerner, & Mindes, 1997); nursing (George & Coudret, 1986; Larson, 1994; Rogers, 1988); business (Lombardo, 1995); and library schools (Whalen, 1979). Some studies also focused on particular topics, such as the role dynamics and dilemmas of assistant and associate deans (George & Coudret, 1986); minority issues (Cox, 1971; Jones, 1995; Lindsey, 1994); leadership and leadership styles (Larson, 1994; Rogers, 1988); student advising (Fielstein & Lammers, 1992); organizational structure and characteristics (Ayers & Doak, 1986; Nash, 1985); preferred management styles (Vanderveen, 1988); gender issues of associate deans (Koerner & Mindes, 1997); the roles and responsibilities of associate deans only (Lombardo, 1995); and the history, rationale, or justification for establishing the roles of assistant and associate academic deans (Ayers & Doak, 1986; George & Coudret, 1986). Numerous studies involved a combination of deans, associate and/or assistant deans in studies in several disciplines: law (Abramson & Moss, 1977; Kindelsperger, 1982), dentistry (Nash, 1985), education (Lindsay, 1994), and pharmacy (Vanderveen, 1988). One study focused on deans', associate deans', and chairpersons' motivational styles and job demands (Blix and Lee, 1991). Several studies covered salary schedules that included assistant and associate deans, deans and other administrators (American Association of Colleges of Pharmacy, 1978a, and 1978b; Murphy, 1982; Ruud & White, 1974; Solander, 1981). According to Kindelsperger (1982), "a review of the research and related literature about associate and assistant deans showed no mention of the positions prior to 1964" (p. 13).

Themes from Literature Review

Three themes emerged from the previously-mentioned review of literature. The first theme explains the *rationale for the position* of assistant and associate deans. The second theme describes *gender differences* for assistant and associate deans. The third theme summarizes the *differences in the roles* of assistant and associate deans.

First Theme - The Rationale for the Position of Assistant and Associate Deans

The first theme described the origins and rationale for establishing the positions of assistant and associate deans (Applegate & Book, 1989; Ayers & Doak, 1986; Larson, 1994). The origins and rationale include growth in the nursing and health care professions (Larson, 1994), greater accountability demanded by state and federal government officials from higher education leaders (Ayers & Doak, 1986), increased institutional demands, reductions in programs, and an emphasis on quality faculty and research (Applegate & Book, 1989). Other examples include an increase in the number of students attending higher education institutions (Ayers & Doak, 1986) and emphasis on deans' time for external activities (Applegate & Book, 1989).

Bureaucratic Growth of Higher Education. Rudolph (1990) stated,

> In responding to the problems of growth, the colleges and universities themselves were introducing new agencies of standardization. One of these was the whole apparatus that came to be known almost everywhere by the loose term 'the administration.' The growth of administration, the proliferation of administrators, was a response to enrollment increases and to demands for new services. It was a response also to the need to free research-minded scholars from the detailed but necessary work that went into the management of an organized institution (p. 434).

Bureaucratic and administrative growth defined the organizational design for higher education institutions (Perkins, 1972). Therefore, "colleges and departments arose as the administrative subdivisions necessary to take care of the new academic subdivisions" (p. 681). Millett (1978) also described two components of managing a higher education institution: operations and support. Operations refer to teaching, public service, and research. Support means overhead and includes student services, institutional and academic services, and plant operations.

Lucas (1994) stated that "the development of universities as bureaucratic organizations was the result of increased size, expanding student enrollments, and demands for new services" (p. 191). Presidents handled internal and external affairs. To handle specific duties not directly related to teaching, full-time administrators, e.g., bursar and librarian, were employed. Birnbaum (1988) noted that, "in earlier times, institutions were small, trustees were clergymen, and administration and faculty might consist of a president and a handful of tutors" (p. 5). As colleges grew in number, size, and complexity; governing boards relinquished more control to the presidents of those institutions.

As higher education institutions grew, curricula expanded through additional subjects; the roles of the presidents changed, and disciplines were organizationally defined by departments (Lucas, 1994). Faculty began to control curriculum, student admissions, and advising. Because of expanded service areas and demands on presidents, more administrators were needed to handle increased service areas, e.g., student affairs and finance. Similarly, different categories for faculty increased: department heads, coordinators, adjuncts, full professors. With the bureaucratic growth of higher education institutions, a new philosophy developed: "administration in a very real sense connoted not simply a style of management but a state of mind, a form of consciousness; and it differed greatly in its values and priorities from the academic mind" (p. 192). An increase in bureaucracy required more full-time administrators to perform specialized tasks; a formal bureaucratic organization provided an operational structure for a higher education

institution. For example, Moore (1987) described two forms of administrative structures: "The former [the professional] consists of collegial faculty bodies such as the department, senate, academic councils, committees, and the like. The bureaucratic-managerial structure has its own employees, in some cases largely composed of non-academics, and oversees the operational and support aspects of the institution" (p. 31).

Increased Accountability by State and Federal Governments. During the last twenty years, funding for higher education has met with increased scrutiny by governors and state legislatures. Ayers and Doak (1986) mentioned how demands for accountability increased the workload for deans. Other factors included enrollment growths during the 1960s and 1970s, and the effect of retrenchment and revitalization in the 1980s. For example, to improve quality, the governor of Maryland, through legislation and financial incentive, had all except two institutions controlled by the University of Maryland Board of Regents (Gilley, 1991). However, "within the expanded system, campus presidents received a new degree of freedom that exceeded Schafer's [the governor] original plan" (p. 126). The Board of Regents became more responsive, and each college gained more independence than with the older operating system. In the late 1980s, the governor of Oregon hired a new chancellor who cut enrollments and reduced costs. These measures provided funds for other educational developments.

Funding by the federal government has also decreased (Gilley, 1991). "Reacting to this partial withdrawal of federal support," Gilley (1991) asserts "many young, ambitious, and well-educated governors of the 1980s, recognizing the importance of higher education to their states, seized the opportunity to establish state direction of colleges and universities" (p. 141). Higher education institutions received federal funds but did not want "intrusion" or oversight from government officials. A similar situation existed with state funding, and governors responded to their constituents' demands for more accountability for funds spent on education and social problems. Much of the populace viewed higher

education as an entity unconcerned about its citizens' needs. However, as citizens and legislators have become aware of higher education and its role in society, they have also become more critical and more demanding of accountability (McConnell, 1981). Because of increased accountability, "[higher education] will increasingly have to explain itself, defend its essential character, and demonstrate that its service is worth the cost" (p. 41).

Institutional Demands. Because of increased demands on presidents to serve both internal and external constituencies, control and decision-making have been decentralized organizationally through vice-presidents and deans. As the role of administration has grown, Rudolph (1990) noted that "deans [have made] an effort to maintain collegiate and human values in an atmosphere of increasing scholarship and specialization. This was why so many of the early deans resisted the full swing to intellectualism that their faculty colleagues represented" (p. 435). Examining the evolving roles of deans during the last 100 years, Applegate and Book (1989) have asserted that "historically, deans of academic units appear to have undergone a transformation from chief academic leaders to chief executive officers with more emphasis placed on personnel decision making and budgetary concerns" (p. 5). While deans represent colleges to upper administration, they also represent upper administration to department chairs and faculty; for example, they transmit academic standards and policies from upper administration to faculty (Trent, 1985). Deans must work effectively with department chairs and faculty to formulate goals and objectives for a college or school.

Rationale for Assistant and Associate Deans. Dill (1980) described three organizational structures for a dean: a part-time dean, a full-time dean, and an office of the dean. Dill (1980) defined the three structures in this manner:

> – A part-time dean, not significantly distinguished from other faculty members of [his or her] age and experience in salary or perquisites, furnished at best with a limited amount of administrative support and divided in his activities between "deaning" and significant amounts of teaching and research.

> - A full-time dean with assistants and administrative support, perhaps engaged in teaching and research for personal satisfaction or symbolic effect in reinforcing academic credentials more than because there is really time for the diversion.
>
> - An office of the dean, in which a dean and up to a dozen associates work as a team sharing leadership responsibilities over a single faculty and student population. The supporting staff to the office of the dean in a medical school and hospital complex may be larger than the entire faculty, of, say, most schools of theology or social work (p. 268).

The type of power, control, and delegation a dean allows varies; some variance, of course, depends upon the president and vice-presidents. Dill (1980) noted that "delegation is likely to be fuller in periods of enrollment and budgetary stability than in periods of uncertainty and change" (p. 269). Typically, delegation is greater when deans, not presidents, control funding.

A part of the administrative growth of colleges and universities included establishing the position of assistant deans (Rudolph, 1990). According to Kindelsperger (1982), "it was predictable then, that as colleges and schools grew, another layer of administration would emerge, that of associate and assistant deans" (p. 82). For example, Ayers and Doak (1986) stated that "to cope with the increased workloads, the position of assistant or associate dean was created to aid the dean in providing academic leadership and in managing the education unit" (p. 2). Weingartner (1996) asserted that associate deans "must be persons who might actually become deans; they must be respected faculty members" (p. 39).

The position of assistant dean derives from the composition and needs of an organization (George & Coudret, 1986). Further, "most often they [assistant/associate deans] are responsible for an academic program, or in some instances, some or all of the academic or service-related activities in the school" (George & Coudret, 1986, p. 173). From a study about assistant and associate deans in schools of law, Kindelsperger (1982) found that most associate deans were responsible for academic programs and/or general administration. Other areas of responsibilities included admissions, student affairs, professional programs, financial aid, placement, budget, and alumni. Most assistant deans'

duties included student affairs, then admissions, alumni affairs, general administration, professional programs, financial aid, and academic affairs. On the other hand, deans did not delegate responsibilities for budget, personnel, fundraising, evaluation, and dealings with central administration. In colleges of nursing, Rogers (1988) stated that assistant/associate deans are responsible for, in separate areas, undergraduate curriculum, graduate program, and research. However, "these assistant/associate deans occupy positions which are complementary to the deanship" (p. 17). In nursing, if a college or university has assistant or associate deans, chairpersons of departments or units report directly to those assistant or associate deans, rather than to the dean.

According to Weingartner (1996), "the size and complexity of the school–as well as the extra-academic demands on the dean . . . –will determine the number of associate deans to be brought into the office" (p. 39). Weingartner (1996) further described two roles of associate deans, 1) serving as a conduit between a number of departments and/or programs and the dean (e.g., communication with committee members, chairpersons and faculty), and 2) serving in an advisory capacity to a dean. In the latter, an associate dean's knowledge of a college's or school's problems and issues as well as financial resources and allocations, facilitates policy-making, decision-making, and problem-solving for that college or school.

The Second Theme - Gender Differences for Assistant and Associate Deans

A second theme revealed by a review of the literature focused on gender differences within assistant and associate dean positions. For career advancement, Applegate and Doak (1989) asserted that "the duties or responsibilities of the job attracted them [women] and that they ready were for a change" (p. 6). More women than men saw the step of becoming assistant or associate deans as desirable for career advancement. From a study of individuals pursuing administrative careers, Moore and Sagaria (1982) assert that women need a terminal degree and senior academic rank to advance in administration. Further,

"senior faculty status is still a customary prerequisite for a deanship or directorship. Hence, those individuals with senior academic rank may have more legitimate credentials and broader job choice options including joint administrative and faculty appointments" (p. 511). According to Whalen (1979), some individuals [assistant deans] were interested in becoming deans, and others enjoyed the work and wanted to maintain the flexibility to continue teaching.

Gender Profile of Assistant and Associate Academic Deans. In library schools, assistant deans were white, and males outnumbered females four to one (Whalen, 1979). Similarly, pharmacy associate deans "were usually white, male, and had earned the B.S. in pharmacy and the Ph.D. degree in a basic science" (Vanderveen, 1988, p. 146). Ages for associate deans resembled those of deans. Associate deans, more than assistant deans, often had more administrative and teaching experience, were older, had a higher academic ranking, had produced more publications, and had earned a terminal degree (e.g., Ph.D.). More men than women were assistant and associate deans. For colleges of education, associate deans tended to be white males, age 50, who earned between $50,000-$60,000 (Applegate & Book, 1989). However, "men earn significantly more than women, and the larger the enrollment of the institution, the higher the salaries" (p. 6). In law schools, females represented 14%, compared to 86% of males, of the assistant and associate deans (Abramson & Moss, 1977). Regarding leadership, "the larger number of female associate and assistant deans than deans may reflect a greater willingness to employ women as subordinate deans but a reluctance to place them in positions of ultimate responsibility" (p. 10). Conversely, to fill the need for leadership positions in colleges of nursing, a majority of deans, department chairs, and assistant and associate deans were women, because nursing tends to be dominated by women (Larson, 1994). Demographics showed that these positions were filled with married white females in their early 40s, who held the faculty

rank of associate professor and fell into one of two primary salary ranges, $22,000 to $27,999 and $34,000 to $41,999.

Influence of Women in Higher Education Administration. Unfortunately, women are relatively new to the ranks of higher education administration (Kaplan & Helly, 1984). According to Grover (1992) "the participation of women in higher education has always been marginal, because conceptions of education have been shaped by men's motivations and needs, whereas the conceptions of women are and have been determined by middle-class ideals of femininity" (p. 331). Because higher education tends to be conservative, traditional, male-dominated, and slow to accommodate change, "many of the priorities of senior administrators are inherited from predecessors and rooted in the history and traditions of their institutions" (Kaplan & Helly, 1984, p. 69). Upper-level administrators can identify and help employees develop their abilities and talents. Questions often raised by present administrators included how a woman will fit within a group and culture and how a woman will deal with its norms, instead of the woman's qualifications for a position. These questions are raised for both middle-level and senior-level administrative positions. As Kaplan and Helly (1984) pointed out, "to meet her professional and personal responsibilities, a senior woman administrator must be comfortable with herself and with her values and yet adaptable enough to accept and operate within the sometimes alien surroundings" (p. 69). With the increase of women in higher level management, Jamieson (1995) asserts "the evaluative norms will change. In theory at least, women will then be seen not as women managers, but simply as managers" (p. 141).

Fortunately, efforts to make administration a less "alien" situation are being made. Tinley (1984) described The Summer Institute for Women in Higher Education Administration, a professional development program that began in 1976 and attempts to meet the needs of both faculty and administrators. The curriculum covered topics in business and finance, computer use, policy issues, and leadership and management skills.

From previous programs, participants were asked to cite barriers to career advancement. Besides the hurdle of obtaining a doctoral degree, women faced other barriers: "lack of experience, . . ., personal or family responsibilities, and lack of mobility" (p. 19). In addition to acquiring career mapping skills, participants learned to look at their resumes and their organizational charts for self-analysis. Individuals learned to compare their personal goals and values to those of an institution, e.g., mission, resources, and informal agendas. The overall objective of the Institute was "to enable the individual to work more effectively within the institution, to advance within it, to change it – or to leave it" (p. 20). Participants gained new perspectives by analyzing their careers within a time frame. In addition, Tinley (1984) stated that

> Higher education administrators in general – whether they are women or men – are not accustomed to analyzing their careers in a personal time frame with special attention to personal rewards and costs, defining the skills and resources needed for job enrichment and career mobility, or extending their perspectives on higher education in general and on their own institutions in particular (pp. 20-21).

Personal outcomes from the program provided participants with a new sense of setting and meeting professional goals and of how those goals relate to personal needs and values. The preceding statements hold true in the 1990s. Cullivan (1990) asserted that "those women who currently have faculty appointments and who are interested in administrative careers, will need to be given opportunities to participate in governance and to develop leadership and decision-making skills" (p. 14). For example, Grover (1992) contends that

> To be a career woman and a leader means more than being a woman: It means doing what people want and think you should do and doing it very well; it means being feminine in a masculine environment; it means having nerves of steel; it means being able to compete in high-powered situations; and it means having the right answers to all questions with no space for failure (p. 332).

From a study of women, both faculty and administrators, who attended the Administrative Skills Program, Speizer (1984) described a profile of personal background considerations for women to be promoted. Speizer (1984) described the promotable woman's profile, "being younger (less than age 44), having the doctorate, being firstborn, not being married, and not having children all appeared to be associated with a greater likelihood of promotion" (p. 41). By today's standards, much of the preceding statement is highly restrictive and sexist. The best chances for a women to advance in academia come through the academic track. Johnsrud and Heck (1994) stated that "being female is found to have significant direct effects on the prior placement of the individual in positions as well as on the status, salary, and responsibility achieved as a result of promotion" (p. 39). In addition,

> Women carry a disadvantage with them: they receive lower returns in status and responsibility (that is, significantly lower salaries and significantly more classified jobs) to their initial placement, which in turn affects their subsequent status over time. Thus, gender stratification – to the detriment of women in this organization – is both perpetuated and additive in its impact (pp. 39-40).

Women in academic administration face two challenges (Rehnke, 1980). First, "they must deal with the usual challenges met by many higher education administrators making sound decisions, resolving conflict, and advancing professionally" (p. 1). Second, "they must deal with the challenges which confront them as women administrators" (p. 1). For example, society as a whole does not value women as decisionmakers or as people who can handle confrontation. Instead, society expects women to play a subordinate role to men, while sacrificing their professional advancement and development. Borrowing an example from business, Morrison and Von Glinow (1995) described the barrier of a "glass ceiling" that limits women and minorities from attaining higher managerial positions: "the glass ceiling is a concept popularized in the 1980s to describe a barrier so subtle that it is transparent, yet so strong that it prevents women and minorities from moving up in the

management hierarchy" (p. 169). Career management can help smash the glass ceiling. For example, women need to understand the importance of working with a mentor, taking advantage of challenging assignments, and participating in support groups (e.g., networking, community groups). Regarding professional advancement, Rehnke (1980) stated, "first the woman administrator needs to define her career goals, the path to achieve these goals and the skills necessary to achieve these goals. She should review her own skills and see if any are lacking" (p. 7). However, "research is needed to answer questions about whether actual or perceived differences are keeping women and minorities below a glass ceiling in management and the extent to which the structures and systems of organization contribute to limited upward mobility" (Morrison & Von Glinow, 1995, p. 181).

Grover (1992) offers advice about attaining career success:

> To assume a definitive leadership role in a profession, women must attain some prestige in the community; they must assume a certain style of life and share in the privileges, opportunities, association with social groups, income, education, occupation, and powers, all of which give them equality with men in a similar leadership role. Occupation is often used as the indicator of position for women, as it is for men, although women are more apt to be placed at a disadvantage in hierarchies of wealth, power, and prestige because they are female (pp. 333-334).

Therefore, to overcome barriers of the glass ceiling "requires a major commitment on the part of the organizations to take action in promoting and advancing people regardless of their gender or ethnicity and for men to take an active role as partners in implementing this change" (Smith, 1997, p. 218). For the progress made, a need still exists for formal programs. For example, program about "how women lead, formal mentoring programs, and implementation of work/life human resource management strategies" (Smith, 1997, p. 218). Jamieson (1995) describes two social trends that will aid women who seek advancement. The first trend "is the increasing female presence on the faculties of colleges

and universities through which virtually all of society's future leaders move" (p. 141). The second trend "is a dramatic increase in the number of women in powerful, visible, and once 'male-only' positions in government and the media" (p. 141).

Effect of Affirmative Action. The effect of affirmative action was not felt on college campuses until the 1970s (Kaplan & Helly, 1984). Moore (1982) stated, from a discussion on academic women and organizational change, that

> The dilemma in looking at women in higher education organizations is that as the subordinate sex in relation to men, women seldom had formal authority within a college or university unless they were the rare faculty member or dean – most often in a women's college (p. 217).

Documentation does show that women have been able to effect change in institutions. At the beginning of the twentieth century, in general, men dominated higher education and society. To be accepted and bring about change, women had to subsist within the existing hierarchy. Change meant that women needed to define a presence for themselves in higher education, a presence which clashed with the traditions and norms of a very conservative establishment. As Moore (1982) stated, "the women who sought change were attempting to alter some significant structural arrangement within their institutions or to establish a new configuration in the relationship of authority" (p. 218). On the one hand, the progress that was made lasted for many years; on the other hand, "progress is slow, however, partly because these women are being held to a set of traditional criteria and standards which they did not help develop and do not always understand" (Cullivan, 1990, p. 13). Colleges and universities need an increase of women in administration to correspond with the growth in the number of women students (Speizer, 1984). Speizer (1984) comments somewhat ironically that, when "left to their own devices, higher education institutions appear to add women students with ease and to increase the number of women managers with difficulty" (p. 45).

Communication Links. The effectiveness of any administrators, male or female, correlates partly with their personalities and partly with how well they communicate. For example, the control and use of information within the university is crucial (Kaplan & Helly, 1984). Senior level administrators control access to resources: to themselves and to decisions for the appropriation of staff, physical, and financial resources. Kaplan and Helly (1984) reminded administrators that "time spent meeting with key faculty members, communication of congratulations or praise, and recognition of individual accomplishment can all be used to set a new agenda and create a climate for the acceptance of new ideas" (p. 69-70).

Formerly, to gain power in both women's colleges and in co-educational institutions, women created coalitions or interest groups (Moore, 1982). When issues arise, "it is not invariably small numbers, low status, or lack of authority that brings about interest group formation but rather the policies or issues themselves" (p. 219). On the other hand, even with proper credentials, women do not often tread into male-defined subject areas (Cullivan, 1990). Women remain in female-defined subject areas, e.g., women's studies (Cullivan), or advising, affirmative action, or remedial teaching (Wilson, 1990).

Describing the importance of open communication, Hersi (1993) stated that "communication in the workplace should be a linear as well as a horizontal process which goes across staff lines of colleagues as well as up and down lines of administrative authority" (p. 30). Poor communication can affect interpersonal relationships, can cause denial of tenure, promotion or raises; and can hamper beginning a research program. For women, networking takes on vital importance because "it helps to overcome isolation, to improve contacts that can promote job advancement, and to provide support and information" (Speizer, 1984, p. 36). Networking enables people to link and provide professional and personal support for mentoring, research, or support groups (Hersi, 1993). Moore (1987) stated that, for women especially, "the lack of a personal, one-to-one

relationship with a senior professional is compounded by the fact that most senior academics in most fields are male" (p. 29).

Communication links can be observed in meetings. For example, North (1991) described gender differences in meetings. Control, seating arrangements, movement during a meeting, and who speaks are important group dynamics for both men and women to observe. Women often listen more than they speak. Men often move around more than do women. Regarding seating, women often sit near other women. When men and women sit together, instead of clustering by sex, women show they are team players. The lack of "such behavior [clustering] makes it easier for the men to see the women as 'other' and as a potential threat to their interests" (p. 47). The amount of papers and other items brought to meetings suggest the amount of someone's confidence about issues; for example, lots of paper does not equal lots of confidence. On the other hand, if women take only a few notes, others might view the lack of notetaking as a lack of preparation. Long held stereotypes remain when "women appear to take more notes on the meeting, again reinforcing the notion that they need help with the details. Unfortunately, this does not go unnoticed; women are often asked to take meeting minutes" (p. 47). Men often compete by playing "games" in their own language. Not knowing the rules hinders women because "it's hard to compete in the 'one-up' game if you don't know you are playing" (p. 47). As an example of the language, Dee (1977) described the effect of sports jargon: women often do not know the language nor the reason for its importance, so they cannot fully participate in male-dominated camaraderie.

Regarding decision-making, North (1991) commented upon gender differences in thinking versus feeling, "women will be more likely to argue from passion, favor situational solutions, and use feelings in their discourse. The men in the thinking mode will be more likely to argue from logic and precedent, favor laws and fairness and attempt to preserve objectivity" (p. 49). These differences can affect interpersonal and group settings.

Perceptions of feelers and thinkers vary in the actions that individuals take to deal with problems. North (1991) explained the differences using a chess-game analogy:

> For the thinking person [the man], failure is losing a rook; for the feeling person [the woman], it is checkmate. The thinking person can bounce back on subsequent issues and continue to work well with those associated with the bad news. The feeling person may take some time to return to a sense of optimism about dealing with new challenges and may find difficulty working with people associated with the defeat (p. 49).

In addition to discussing decision-making, North (1991) described inductive and deductive approaches to completing group tasks. The deductive approach, considered a male trait, refers to planning and goal setting that "suggests being prepared before meetings, knowing what principles should govern decisions, wanting discussion to go certain directions and being willing to lobby beforehand to assure certain outcomes" (p. 51). The inductive approach, deemed a female trait, "suggests a listening, 'tentative' conversation style, that permits the whole picture to become clear–perhaps another reason why women talk less" (p. 51). A parallel to the inductive approach is Rosener's (1995) description of interactive leadership, in which "women encourage participation, share power and information, enhance other people's self-worth, and get others excited about their work" (pp. 150-151). From Rosener's study of women executives and the need to foster interaction, one participant mentioned the "bridge club." For members, "the club is an informal gathering of people who have information she needs but over whom she has no direct control. The word *bridge* describes the effort to bring together these 'members' from different functions. The word *club* captures the relaxed atmosphere" (p. 151). Employee participation helps foster "ownership" and support, and limits opposition for decisions that are made.

Schein (1995), after examining differences between male and female managers, focused on the androgynous manager, one who includes both feminine and masculine

traits. Feminine traits complement male-dominated leadership: "unlike the global warrior or John Wayne manager, a feminine leader would be oriented toward cooperation, teamwork, and concern for others" (p. 162). Besides pointing out differences, Schein (1995), also focused on similarities between men and women managers:

> Male and female managers appear to be cut from the same cloth, with some portions of it tattered and inappropriate and other parts of high quality. But gender will not predict the composition of the cloth. From a performance perspective, male and female leadership is more likely to be similar than different (p. 164).

The primary difference is that more men than women still hold upper level positions than middle- and lower-level positions. The higher the position, the more influence and power an individual has, so if women do not hold upper level positions, they are denied influence and power – a vicious circle which often keeps women relatively powerless in academe.

Dee (1977) discussed unhealthy power relationships in which "they [women] have little opportunity to see power forces at work. Their efforts to avoid confrontation extend to their social and professional lives" (p. 10). Rosener (1995) mentioned that "sharing power and information also gives employees and coworkers the wherewithal to reach conclusions, solve problems, and see the justification for a decision" (p. 155) On the other hand, if power and information can result in opposition to leadership, employees become critical and question leaders' actions. Somtimes, "because information is a source of power, leaders who share it can be seen as naive or needing to be liked" (p. 155). Dee (1977) noted that people's use of power in academe will be based upon comprehension and wisdom gained from educational theories and practices. Wilson (1990) asserted that

> Women who eventually become administrators in the 1990s are likely to have demonstrated the following characteristics: serious scholarship, interest in the whole university community, high energy levels, associations with other active, energetic people, effective time management, and readiness to take on challenges and to assume reasonable risks (p. 70).

The Third Theme - Differences Between the Roles of Assistant and Associate Deans

A third theme prevalent in the literature review questions whether differences exist between the roles of assistant and associate deans. Whalen (1979) indicated that

> It is difficult to determine any particular pattern of use of one or the other title. No one type of institution uses one rather than the other although in general private universities tend to use the term associate more often than assistant; the public universities are almost evenly divided (p. 46).

Studies can help to determine whether a difference exists between the roles of assistant and associate academic deans.

Role of Faculty and Role of Administrator. Assistant and associate academic deans have dual roles as administrators (serving a dean) and faculty members (serving a department chair and colleagues within their own discipline): one position or individual serves two masters. Ayers and Doak (1986) noted that increased workloads forced deans to establish assistant and associate deans' positions to lead and manage colleges effectively. George and Coudret (1986) stated that "associate and assistant deans participate in a wide range of management and leadership activities while also actively engaged in the faculty role functions of teaching, research, and service" (p. 173). As a part of their position, assistant deans are required to teach courses and keep current in their discipline. Assistant deans must still fulfill obligations of their role as faculty, in particular, the promotion and tenure process. Faculty reviews include a record of publishing, teaching, and public service activities; however, "the evaluation of the assistant dean by the dean usually focuses on administrative functions" (p. 177). Despite teaching and other faculty demands, few adjustments for administrative load are made for assistant and associate deans (Applegate & Book, 1989). In other words, many assistant and associate deans' positions are considered half-time, even though in reality their jobs are full-time.

Staff or Line Positions of Assistant and Associate Deans. The role of an assistant or associate dean can be either line or staff and is largely based on perception by the individual who holds the position, rather than on the kind of work involved. In a review of the literature for this study, a "typical" role for an associate or assistant dean in higher education administration was not found. However, Whalen (1979), from a library study, provided an excellent summary of the role of a typical assistant dean,

> There is no typical assistant dean, of course, and neither is there any meaningful way to define THE role of an assistant dean since it very much depends on the mission and policies of the institution, the goals and objectives of the library school, and to a great extent, the role and administrative style of the dean. Whatever the role, however, it should have fairly well-defined responsibilities which are made clear to everyone in the school–faculty, staff, students, and other administrators (p. 53).

Assistant and associate deans represent the dean, have assigned responsibilities (e.g., have job descriptions) with decision-making authority and budgetary control, and work with faculty and department chairs (Whalen, 1979). In the dean's absence, an associate dean is designated to act (Ayers & Doak, 1986). Associate deans serve constituents within a college or school, within an institution, and within external audiences (e.g., professional organizations, surrounding communities). Applegate and Book (1989) asserted that "there appears to be no difference in responsibility between assistant and associate deans; the title of the position does not seem to influence the scope of work" (p. 6). The assistant and associate deans stated that the dean was their peer because "the assistant dean is delegated many aspects of the dean's job and consequently sees himself/herself more closely associated with the dean than with other faculty members" (p. 7).

A study by Ayers and Doak (1986) reviewing the organizational structure for colleges of education revealed that "the associate deans were in some type of line relationships to the dean, while many of the assistant deans were in staff positions" (p. 5). The size of the institution also determined organizational roles of assistant and associate deans. For larger institutions,

> Typically, there were at least two or more assistant/associate deans who were responsible for such major areas as research, administration of the college, public service and continuing education, student personnel services, and graduate programs. In smaller institutions, the individual holding a particular position may have been responsible for more than one area. The position of assistant dean or assistant to the dean was generally responsible for assisting with the general administration of the college, i.e., budget control, supervision of clerical staff, and special studies (p. 6).

George (1986) made the following conclusions from a study of assistant and associate deans in collegiate units of nursing. The following conclusions relate specifically to line or staff issues:

> [1]. Associate and assistant deans are line officers and in that capacity assume top level administrative responsibility for major programs in schools and colleges of nursing.
>
> [2]. In the middle management positions of associate and assistant deans, there often exist significant gaps between the degree of authority in the role and the extent of line responsibility required in the position.
>
> [3]. The position of associate dean is of higher status than that of assistant dean because of multiple professional and personal characteristics of those occupying these roles. However, most institutions are unlikely to plan for a step by step advancement in promotion from assistant to associate dean, even though promotional policies provide for advancement in professorial rank.
>
> [4]. Because of the many layers of secondary personnel who act in a managerial capacity within nursing units, associate and assistant deans are often separated from the faculty who perform the primary work of the organization, that is the education of students, and for whom associate and assistant deans have direct line responsibility for development and evaluation (pp. 72-74).

Kindelsperger (1982) made the following conclusions from a study of assistant and associate deans in collegiate units in law. The following conclusions relate specifically to line or staff issues:

> [1]. There are important differences between associate and assistant deans in terms of roles and responsibilities, educational backgrounds, professional backgrounds and status within the law school.
>
> [2]. Associate and assistant deans are responsible to their deans for any and all aspects of the administration of the law school, although some deans may retain sole responsibility for selected assignments.
>
> [3]. Associate and assistant deans are line rather than staff administrators.
>
> [4]. Associate deans tend to be cast in the traditional mold of academic administrators. They are more likely to have terminal professional degrees and be permanent tenured members of the faculty. They are not likely to have ambitions towards other administrative positions within or without the law school but are likely to be considered if the position of dean comes open.
>
> [5]. Assistant deans tend to have characteristics of professional middle managers. They tend to come to their positions from other administrative positions and have ambitions for future positions within or without the law schools. They have in some ways taken on the burden of second class citizenship and are not likely to be considered if the position of dean comes open.
>
> [6]. Perceptions of associate and assistant deanships tend to reflect the traditional attitude that holding of administrative responsibilities is not consistent with or conducive to prestigious academic performance (pp. 91-92).

George and Coudret (1986) noted that associate and assistant deans deal with role ambiguity: "specific examples of ambiguity resulting from unclear role expectations are found in areas involving the assistant dean's responsibility for faculty recruitment, faculty development, and faculty evaluation" (p. 176). Assistant and associate deans often overlap with those of faculty and college administrators, for example, in the areas of curriculum and program development. George and Coudret (1986) comment that

> The diffusion of responsibility without specified accountability contributes to the ambiguity inherent in the role and often results in frustration and ineffectiveness. The degree of difficulty which results from administrative overlap in curriculum and program development is closely related to the interpersonal relationship and the compatibility of the assistant dean's and dean's leadership styles (p. 176).

Prior Administrative Experience. Prior administrative experience varies for assistant and associate deans. Typical of a response often supported in the literature, Abramson and Moss (1977) found that associate deans had more administrative experience than did assistant deans. Associate deans also held higher academic rank, e.g., full professor, than did assistant deans. Kindelsperger (1982) showed results that coincide with Abramson and Moss: more associate deans had been assistant deans or held other administrative positions. Approximately 40% of the assistant deans had prior administrative experience in other university positions; in colleges of education, for instance, many assistant and associate deans had been department chairs (Applegate & Book, 1989). In business, nearly 40% of the associate deans had been department chairs at their current institutions (Lombardo, 1995). In pharmacy, over one-half of the associate deans and pharmacy deans were former department chairs (Vanderveen, 1988).

Prior administrative experience may or may not prepare an individual adequately for the role of assistant or associate academic dean. Individuals who seek middle and upper level management position in higher education often do not have adequate training or formal administrative experience. As Hipps (1982) points out,

> College faculty and administrators have traditionally been produced through on-the-job training; if they became good at their jobs, they did so by the trial-and-error approach and through the good office of kindly, benevolent, and experienced colleagues who had themselves been educated in the proverbial school of hard knocks (p. 49).

A successful teaching career was the only essential requirement for an aspiring administrator (Hipps, 1982). For example, approximately 84% of the associate deans rated their professorial experience as essential preparation to become an associate dean (Lombardo, 1995). Further, nearly 82% of the associate deans teach, though on a limited basis.

Educational Credentials. In Larson's (1994) study, educational credentials varied among midlevel managers in nursing including individuals with the titles of assistant dean, chairperson, department head, and coordinator. An almost equal member of midlevel managers held master's and doctorate degrees. Most held doctorates in fields other than nursing, primarily in educational administration. Larson further stated that "An impediment to advancement for nurses in academia is the lack of proper higher education qualifications. The majority of other disciplines in academe require doctorates in the same disciplines for faculty in middle management positions (p. 151-152).

A study of assistant deans, associate deans, and deans of law by Abramson and Moss (1977) suggested "the relatively lower percentages of associate and assistant deans with L.L.M. and S.J.D. degrees may reflect the view that some of the tasks and responsibilities of subordinate dean do not require an academic background beyond the first degree in law" (pp. 11-12). Many assistant and associate deans had M.A. degrees. A master's degree qualified individuals for specific jobs, with the rank of assistant or associate dean. However, "teaching experience ranks as very important among both deans and associate and assistant deans as an important factor which has helped them function as a law school administrator" (p. 18). Assistant and associate deans do not have a scholarship background that law deans have; "arguably those respondents with writings might have been appointed to administer non-academic as well as academic programs, i.e., performing tasks which do not require a scholarly writing background" (p. 16). For faculty who are administrators, academic colleagues insist on competence and credentials in a discipline (Cullivan, 1990).

George (1980) stated these individuals [assistant and associate deans] had experience in teaching and administration, most had nursing masters degrees and doctorates, most were affiliated with professional organizations, and many participated in on-campus activities. The study's participants stated that professional development

included continuing their education, and completing a doctorate. George further stated that "because both roles, that of dean and associate or assistant dean, possess similar qualities and require corresponding managerial and interpersonal skills, it is apparent that organizational efforts within academic institutions would be positively influenced by administratively prepared individuals" (p. 57). On the other hand, of the assistant and associate deans in George's study who completed doctorates, only a small number completed administrative internships.

Administrative Training. Applegate and Book (1989) determined that "most assistant/associate deans obtain their administrative training on the job since few [from their survey] indicated that they had formal preparation in higher education administration" (p. 6). In fact, a majority of individuals (over 90%) in these positions had not obtained training for their position through other formal means, e.g., professional associations such as the ACE Fellows in Academic Administration program. Some had read professional journals or attended workshops. Current assistant and associate deans had not obtained additional instruction in educational administration since assuming their positions. However, more individuals from smaller institutions than from larger institutions had attended workshops. This example corresponds to the role of mid-level management found in libraries (Sullivan, 1992): "many of these supervisors and managers were selected for their positions because of their functional expertise, not because of a proven ability to supervise or manage" (p. 272). To overcome administrative deficiencies, George and Coudret (1986) recommended additional study, namely, finance, budgeting, and management, through formal education and continuing education courses. As supervisors: "deans can help in this area of the assistant dean's administrative skills development by sharing information about political and informal decision-making processes which occur in academia" (p. 177).

For the individual who wishes to obtain additional training, a variety of institutional supports exists. For example, some institutions offer administrators sabbaticals; often administrators attend higher education conferences. Millet (1978) stated that

> For some strange reason, the academic world in America, which believes in and practices education for a wide variety of professional occupations, has never really believed in or adequately practiced professional education for college and university administration. Faculty members, during their own academic education, acquire an inherent distrust of administrators (p. 58).

Career Aspirations. McDade (1997) described two groups of administrators: "intentional" and "unintentional," these descriptions were based on the author's review of literature for career progression in higher education administration and from a survey of senior level higher education administrators. The main difference between intentional and unintentional administrators was that the former plan a career in administration while the latter maintained loyalty to their discipline. An intentional administrator, according to McDade (1997),

> • planned to be an administrator and pursued this as a career goal through degree preparation, professional development, or experience outside higher education; or
>
> • started a career elsewhere in the academy (typically in the professoriate) but at some point made the conscious decision to move into administration–that is, made a conscious choice to take responsibility for leadership (p. 2).

Intentional administrators take steps to enhance their careers in the same institution or in a higher position at another institution. For example, "the intentional executive is oriented to this new career; decides to take responsibility for leadership; and relates to the literature of higher education, administration, and leadership as one's academic realm" (p. 2). On the other hand, unintentional administrators remain loyal to a long described purpose of why they entered academia.

McDade (1997) described an unintentional administrator as someone who

- considers himself or herself an academic no matter how much time he or she has spent in the administrative post;
- sees the position as a temporary interlude in an academic career; and
- plans to return to the faculty upon completion of the administrative challenge at hand (p. 2).

The unintentional administrator remains active in a discipline, teaches occasionally, and continues publishing, following the requirements to be a member of the academy. In addition, "while this may seem an artificial construct, the stereotype is rooted in fact, perceptions, and the value system of the academy that favors the life of the scholar and teacher over that of the administrator" (p. 3).

Motivational factors for individuals to become assistant and associate deans are similar among the studies. Duties and job responsibilities were major criteria (Applegate & Book, 1989). Some individuals wanted to make a change in their career, with salary and increased status as minor reasons for that change. Women viewed the positions of assistant and associate deans as opportunities for professional career advancement. For example, "these administrators [women] seemed to be interested in doing the work of the assistant/associate dean" (p. 6). However, personal contacts and "who knows whom" also played a role in obtaining assistant and associate deans' positions. Some individuals actively sought assistant and/or associate dean positions; others were appointed by deans.

Several authors noted similar reasons from assistant and associate deans about whether individuals remained in administration. In pharmacy, assistant deans would not willingly choose administration again (Vanderveen, 1988). In regard to a question on future plans of associate and assistant deans of law to stay in their position, Abramson and Moss (1977) stated "for whatever reasons, associate and assistant deans seem more unwilling than deans to remain in their current positions for a long term" (p. 15). Larson (1994) concluded that individuals in middle management positions did not see their position as a step to becoming a dean, nor did they want to pursue additional leadership responsibilities. The primary reason for lack of career aspirations included family

responsibilities and satisfaction with current positions. If additional leadership positions were sought by individuals, the settings included higher position in their current institution, outside employment (e.g., community or nursing agency, private practice, entrepreneurship) or leaving the field of nursing.

However, salary sometimes motivated people, because "career aspiration to a higher leadership position was greater when the salary was higher and the perception was stronger that the current position was a career step to a higher leadership position such as dean" (p. 151). Many administrators reported that their experience as an associate or assistant dean prepared them for another position in administration (Applegate & Book, 1989), and many individuals enjoyed the various aspects of their position: the position itself, locality, colleagues, institutional reputation, and benefits. Evidently location is important to more women than to men. To make administration a career, women

> must be prepared to move themselves and their families to a new location if they wish to advance professionally. For married women, this need for mobility can have negative effects on husband and family. For unmarried women, moving to another city or town disrupts relationships and personal support groups (p. 69).

A decision about re-locating can rest on how women deal with disruption in their lives. Women in middle level positions are more likely to move to another college or university than are women in senior level positions (Moore & Sagaria, 1981). Schein (1995) stated that men are not asked to make the same distinction between a career and parenthood that women are asked to make.

Deans can play a pivotal role in supporting assistant and associate deans to either remain as midlevel managers or to seek higher administrative and leadership positions. As previously stated, to gain a higher level administrative position, individuals need to obtain formal education or training in academic administration. According to Larson (1994), "support from others, especially the support of the leader in the work place, is essential for those engaging in career advancement" (p. 152).

Kindelsperger (1982) found that many associate and assistant deans perceived their career paths as leading back to faculty or to another university position. However, associate deans stated that if a deanship became available, associate deans, more than assistant deans, would be considered for the position. From the deans' responses, approximately one-half of the respondents indicated that serving as an assistant or associate dean was a stepping stone to becoming a dean. Other deans perceived that associate and assistant deans' career paths would lead to another university position or nowhere. Moreover, "some respondents wrote in the margin that the positions should not logically lead to other or necessarily higher administrative duties in that the positions were to be held for a relatively short period of time and then rotated to another individual, presumably another faculty member" (p. 41). George (1980) found that assistant and associate deans deal with situations that would help prepare them for a deanship. George also noted that "these positions have attracted only a small number of professionals who are goal-oriented to become deans" (p. 73). Millett (1978) stated limitations for individuals climbing an academic career ladder.

> The career ladder in academic management in a college or university is typically department chairman, college dean, university vice president for academic affairs (or provost), and president. There are two complications in this career ladder: There is no educational preparation for these executive-managerial positions and the career ladder itself is at best precarious, to say the least. Faculty members are educated as scholars, not as managers (p. 52).

Individuals selected for administrative positions often "fit in" and they retain faculty values (Moore, 1984). From a study of administrators' careers, the Leaders in Transition Project from 1981, Moore (1984) found "that most line administrators are promoted from within, and doctoral universities are the mostly like to do this" (p. 6). As Moore (1984) further points out,

> It seems probable that selection for a major administrative post is frequently based in large measure on the individual's association with the institution as well as

proven competence to manage institutional functions at some lower level. Certainly formal training as an administrator has not been a criterion for most (p. 5).

Role of Mid-Level Management in Higher Education

Each position in an organization varies from the others because people are needed to complete specific responsibilities to fulfill the goals of a unit, division, department, college or school, or institution. Sullivan (1992) asserted that "the foundation for these skills and abilities is a philosophy that values staff at all levels for their competence and contribution and recognizes that each person continues to grow and develop" (p. 277).

According to Price (1977), "the term 'Middle Management' is not often used by those who hold administrative posts in higher education" (p. 33). Besides assistant and associate deans, other examples of mid-level management include alumni directors, counselors, registrars, librarians, admissions officers, directors of athletics, coaches, and institutional researchers. Academic administrators wear many "hats" in their role. As Seymour (1987) stated, "they are not only managers, but also recruiters, motivators, planners, fundraisers, accountants, and innovators. In addition, many play secondary roles as teachers and scholars" (p. 37).

Saville (1978) described three competencies mid-level managers possess or display: (1) the organizational structure of administration in higher education, (2) decision making and communication, and (3) the actual practice of administration. For the first competency, "in any institution the formal organizational structure serves as the primary source of power in decision making" (p. 389). Stakeholders' perceptions of an organization and its leadership determine how they view "where they stand." For the second competency, individuals need to see who actually has organizational power and what methods or processes (e.g., committees, faculty senate) exist to exercise power. Commitment is more important to obtain than agreements and consent. For example, "collegial management should serve to create a sense of common purpose and achievement--an atmosphere for

motivation--an aura of mutual stimulation" (p. 391). An effective method for achieving commitment is through a consultative process, a free exchange of ideas with clear decisions and appropriate responsibility. The third competency refers to understanding and attending to operational aspects of an organization. Such aspects "include budgets, facilities, programs, decisions, personnel, politics, rules and regulations, political processes, change processes" (p. 391).

Sullivan (1992) aptly described the basic competencies mid-level management should have. The role of mid-level management includes "accomplishing goals by managing relationships, functioning as 'playing coach,' responsibility for translating goals into action, and importance of responsibility and authority" (pp. 270-273). Mid-level management personnel have many sub-roles to fulfill. Sullivan (1992) asserted that "these relationships form a complex network with various requirements for communication, time spent, and needs to be met. Expectations vary and sometimes are in conflict" (p. 270). A player-coach has a dual role: he or she needs to be able to interact with senior administration and to interact and work with individuals within a unit. To respond to institutional goals, mid-level managers have to be able to establish goals within their own units. Therefore, "this process of translating goals into action to achieve results requires communication, interpretation, and explanation" (p. 271). In many organizations, individuals find that responsibility does not equal authority. For example,

> Operating with more responsibility and limited authority means that decisions may be subject to change by senior management, staff may be successful in persuading senior management to overturn decisions, and interdepartmental competition and conflict arise (p. 271).

For assistant and associate academic deans, these competencies deal with demonstrating positive interpersonal relations, responding to an organization's goals, and accepting responsibility for their actions and for those of their unit.

With the use of new technologies (e.g., information technologies, distance learning), mid-level managers also have different relationships with subordinates (Sullivan, 1992). Employees have skills that enable them to perform their jobs more independently. Mid-level managers may lack time to solve problems and must rely on competent staff to solve them. Often, mid-level managers may or may not have direct knowledge of subordinates' work. Mid-level managers need skilled and competent employees to carry out their duties. Sullivan (1992) stated that "as the manager's role shifts from one of direction and control to one of guidance and coordination, the role of staff shifts from that of subordinate to a partner or participant in the accomplishment of work and the achievement of organizational goals" (p. 272) Additionally, the employee pool has more diversity than it did years ago. Consequently, "often the middle manager supervises staff who are older, more experienced, and more knowledgeable [than him or herself]" (p. 273).

Sullivan (1992) described how to deal effectively with subordinates and colleagues, especially in higher administration. The following observation reflects a transition in the views of participants from a Library Management Skills Institute during a 10-year period.

> A key issue that has emerged during the discussions in these institutes in the past years is the need to be more effective in influencing those at higher levels in the library. This is described broadly to include assistant or associate directors, personnel administrators, budget and finance officers, the library director, as well as the manager's immediate supervisor. The purpose behind this desire is to persuade the more senior managers of the necessity to respond to changing needs, to provide information about day-to-day operations and the problems that occur, to have better working relationships with senior management, and to be more effective themselves as they integrate library goals and plans with the work of their department (p. 274).

Sullivan (1992) thus represents how mid-level managers need to work within an organization to facilitate and influence decisions regarding rules and regulations, programs, and personnel.

Price (1977) discussed the rationale for holding employees accountable for more facets of their jobs, including efficient use of fiscal resources and time management:

> As a college administrator in a public institution, I am accountable for my performance on the job. The governor of my state, mayor of my city or any interested taxpayer has the right to inspect my work, and to expect me 'to work.' And they also have every right to expect me to cut costs of operations wherever and whenever I see that they are nonessential to the teaching mission of my institution (p. 35).

Personal characteristics of effective administrators include motivation, good communication and interpersonal skills, and such personal attributes as fairness, honesty, and patience (Harb, 1980). Professional expertise is a notable attribute for effective administrators.

Leadership

Leadership, the theme that underlies competencies for mid-level management, means more than knowing how to use skills. DePree (1992) asserted that "above all, leadership is a position of servanthood. Leadership is also a posture of debt; it is a forfeiture of rights" (p. 220). In other words, leadership equals putting goals of the organization ahead of personal consideration. Leadership reflects a position of power designated by the organization. Leadership can also be a source of informal power. According to Darling and Ishler (1992) "leaders can emerge from within an academic group, such as a department or college, as well as being formally appointed" (p. 44). On the other hand, subordinates and peers continually assess leadership. Kouzes and Posner (1990) stated that "constituents determine when someone possesses the qualities of leadership" (p. 26). Honesty, competency, a forward-looking vision, and the ability to

inspire serve as a foundation; credibility, of course, is also crucial. Leadership requires trust among employees, regardless of position (Price, 1977). Price (1977) also asserted that "the most successful and satisfied educational leaders [he has] known were committed to their work, not to gold, silver, the market or grain futures" (p. 39). Price (1977) described a term, "unwarranted optimism," meaning that leaders should focus on positive, not negative, possibilities, occurrences, situations, and events. Along the same lines, Saville (1978) stated that "the integrity of leadership and the subsequent decision-making process develops the confidence necessary for the positive operation of any institution" (p. 390). Through self-confidence, leaders will expand their own horizons (Kouzes & Posner, 1990). As individuals learn how and when to use leadership skills, they acquire other and stronger leadership skills for their continuing professional development.

A recurring focus for administrators is the mind-set which realizes that opportunities arise from problems. Darling and Ishler (1992) contended that "responsibly reacting to the opportunities for development and serving as a catalyst for helping to create such opportunities within academic institutions are two key roles for the administrative leader today" (p. 43). As stated previously, leaders set the tone for a unit, for themselves, and for their subordinates. If leaders see challenges, not roadblocks, subordinates usually will do the same.

Darling and Ishler (1992) discussed several attributes of effective administrative leadership. They described a "spirit of achievement" that is "a perspective that continually calls them forth [colleagues, subordinates] to the completion of tasks and the realization of goals" (p. 44). That spirit described a leader's persistence and determination, despite what lies before him or her; effective leaders will strive to meet an institution's goals and objectives. The position and personal traits of a leader influence peers, colleagues, and subordinates: "the success or failure realized in administrative leadership is affected by authority and influence" (p. 45). To retain leadership roles, effective leaders exhibit intelligence and empathy. They also tend to be extroverted and self-assured. In regard to

interpersonal behavior and effectiveness, "the search for determinants of effective and successful leadership in academic administration often focuses on finding the uniqueness in the way effective leaders behave in colleges and universities" (p. 47). Darling and Ishler (1992) also stated that an "effective administrative leader in an academic institution must be flexible enough to adapt to the differences among faculty members, departments or collegiate units, and other situation variables" (p. 48). Administrators must continually have a broad focus upon their environment and its influences and must review and analyze the exchanges that happen on a daily basis. According to Saville (1978), "the effective higher education leader must be an actualizing individual--one who appreciate himself [or herself], respects others, and recognizes the unique worth and potential of human beings" (p. 392).

Summary

This literature review discussed the roles of deans, three themes concerning the roles of assistant and associate deans, and the roles of mid-level management in higher education. The three themes about the roles of assistant and associate deans included the rationale for the position, the distribution of gender differences between the positions, and differences between the roles of assistant and associate deans. The first theme, the rationale for the position of assistant and associate deans, described how additional layers of administration have resulted from the growth of bureaucracy in higher education (Rudolph, 1990). Other reasons for additional administrators included more accountability to federal and state governments (Ayers & Doak, 1986; Gilley, 1991; McConnell, 1981); a decrease in federal funding (Gilley, 1991); and varying institutional demands (Applegate & Book, 1989; Rudolph, 1990; Trent, 1985).

The second theme, the distribution of gender differences between the positions, provided a profile of assistant and associate deans. The second theme also summarized the influence of women in higher education administration (Cullivan, 1990; Moore, 1982; Speizer, 1984), the effect of affirmative action (Kaplan & Helly, 1984; Moore, 1982), and

difference in decision-making and communication styles for men and women (Cullivan, 1990; Dee, 1977; Hersi, 1992; Kaplan & Helly, 1984; Moore, 1982; North, 1991; Rosener, 1995; Schein, 1995; Speizer, 1984; Wilson, 1990).

The third theme, differences between the roles of assistant and associate deans, provided an emphasis on the duality of roles held by such individuals. Assistant and associate deans have both administrative and teaching duties so most are "wearing two hats." Conflicting opinions exist about whether assistant and associate deans constitute line or staff positions. As faculty, assistant and associate deans learned their disciplines. However, as administrators, their lack of prior administrative experience and administrative training can hamper individuals' performance. Associate deans often had more administrative experience than did assistant deans (Abramson & Moss, 1977). Some assistant and associate deans had gained administrative experience as former department chairs. On the other hand, some faculty had intentionally pursued administrative careers while other individuals had not (McDade, 1997).

A final section in the review of literature focused on the roles of mid-level management in higher education: skills and abilities (Sullivan, 1992), the multiple roles administrators play (Seymour, 1987), organizational, decision-making, communication, and interpersonal competencies (Saville, 1978; Sullivan, 1992), and leadership traits (Darling & Ishler, 1992; DePree, 1992; Kouzes & Posner, 1990; Price, 1977; Saville, 1978). Mid-level managers in higher education require a range of administrative and interpersonal skills that differs from the skills required of a faculty member.

Two studies by George (1980) and Kindelsperger (1982) focused on the roles of assistant and associate deans. Because of a limited availability of literature about assistant and associate deans, they reviewed the role of a dean to understand the role of assistant and associate deans. Previous studies of assistant and associate deans did not specifically address issues of gender in higher education administration. In addition, many of the previous studies, completed during the 1970s and 1980s, are now out of date. From the

literature review, the only studies completed during the 1990s about assistant and associate deans in four-year postsecondary institutions covered minority access into higher education (Jones, 1995). Several studies completed during the 1990s included assistant or associate deans as a part of the population in academic disciplines: women administrators (Hanner, 1995), and occupational stress (Akhiemokhali, 1995). No study of assistant and associate deans that includes more than one discipline or professional school has yet been completed; the target population for this study has not been previously surveyed. Although the contribution to the literature on assistant and associate deans' roles may be limited, this study attempted to find patterns, relationships, and differences of the roles of assistant and associate deans that presently exist.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

This chapter provides an overview of research methods applied in this study. The following sections address the research design, a description of the study, the target population, the instrumentation, the data collection, the independent and dependent variables, and data analysis.

Research Design

The causal-comparative design used for this study tests patterns and relationships by comparing and contrasting the roles of assistant and associate deans. Causal-comparative research "seeks to discover possible causes and effects of a behavior pattern or personal characteristic by comparing individuals in whom it is present with individuals in whom it is absent or present to a lesser degree" (Gall, Borg, & Gall, 1996, p. 380). "Many of the cause-and-effect relationships in education are not subject to experimental manipulation" (Gall, Borg, & Gall, 1996, p. 381). Best and Kahn (1993) also state that subjects in causal-comparative research "cannot be randomly, or otherwise, assigned to treatment groups" (p. 128). To clarify how two groups contrast, the researcher must propose and test alternative hypotheses. According to Hittleman and Simon (1992), "researchers compare possible independent variables to see which variable, if any, has a strong relationship with the already known outcome" (p. 37). The purpose of causal-comparative research is to establish causality, instead of simply correlating or comparing, "When researchers identify one or more conditions, they can attribute causality; however, this attribution may be less strong than in an experimental design where the researchers can control all of the variables" (p. 38). "Whole" groups, e.g., target populations, are used in causal-comparative research.

Population

Gay (1996) states that the "target population refers to the population to which the researcher would ideally like to generalize results" (p. 626). Further, the accessible population "refers to the population from which the researcher can realistically select subjects" (p. 617). The target population for this study included assistant and associate deans working in the disciplines of education, business, and arts and sciences, in universities located in the southeast region of the United States, the geographic region defined by the accrediting body of the Commission on Colleges of the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools (SACS). SACS accredits higher education institutions in the following states: Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, and Virginia.

The assistant and associate deans studied were separated by categories according to Research Universities I, Research Universities II, Doctoral Universities I, and Doctoral Universities II, as described by the previously mentioned Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching (The Chronicle of Higher Education, 1997). Table 1 illustrates the number of institutions in the SACS region subdivided into Carnegie Foundation categories.

Data Collection

The researcher made a list of the higher education institutions in each Carnegie classification accredited by SACS. A search on the Internet located web pages for each higher education institution. The researcher reviewed the contents of each institution's web pages, seeking links to colleges or schools of arts and science, business, and education. Some institutions did not have colleges or schools of arts and sciences, business, or education. The researcher obtained the name, e-mail and postal addresses, and telephone number for each dean. (See Appendix A for a final list of institutions in the study.) When the Internet did not provide information for particular institutions, the researcher telephoned

TABLE 1

BREAKDOWN OF INSTITUTIONS BY

CARNEGIE FOUNDATION CATEGORIES

Category	Total Number of Institutions for each Category Nationally	Total Number of Institutions within SACS
Research Universities I	68	19
Research Universities II	37	10
Doctoral Universities I	51	17
Doctoral Universities II	31	14
Total	187	60

those institutions to obtain the name of the dean, or his or her designate of each college or school, as well as his or her e-mail address and telephone number. After the initial list was completed, the researcher sent an e-mail message (see Appendix B) to each dean, or his or her designate, explaining the purpose of the study and requesting that those deans send to the researcher the names, telephone numbers, e-mail addresses, and mailing addresses for each associate and assistant dean. Most deans provided the information requested in the researcher's e-mail message. Some deans simply forwarded the researcher's initial e-mail message to their associate and assistant deans to reply if they were interested in participating in the study. In a few cases, the deans suggested that the researcher follow-up directly with the associate and assistant deans to determine whether they were willing to participate in the study. In some cases, no reply was received from a follow-up contact with either the dean and/or associate and assistant deans. The final list of respondents came from individuals who said they were willing to participate, names that deans provided,

names obtained from institutions' web pages, and from follow-up telephone calls. The final list of potential respondents in the study numbered 452. A larger list of respondents could have been obtained if replies had been received from all telephone calls and e-mail messages. Many institutions did not have specific colleges/schools that the researcher sought. For the final list of potential respondents, the breakdown by Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching was: Research Universities I, 195 individuals; Research Universities II, 74 individuals; Doctoral Universities I, 101 individuals; and Doctoral Universities II, 82 individuals.

After the list of 452 associate and assistant deans was completed, a cover letter (see Appendix C) with the Institutional Review Board form (see Appendix D), the instrument, (see Appendix E) and a self-addressed, stamped envelope were mailed to each assistant and associate dean. The initial mailing occurred during the weeks of June 22 and June 29, 1998. The initial mailings occurred a week apart because the researcher was still compiling a complete list of individuals to whom to send surveys. The researcher requested that all instruments be returned by July 17, 1998. To follow up, a second letter was mailed to each individual on July 22, 1998. The purposes of the second letter were 1) to thank every one who had returned the surveys, 2) to remind others to complete and return the surveys, and 3) to confirm the names and addresses of those who requested the results of the study. Individuals who received the follow-up letter could contact the researcher by e-mail if they had questions or comments.

Instrumentation

The researcher developed an instrument, A Study of Assistant and Associate Deans, that incorporated relevant ideas from two surveys used in previous research. Sections I, II, III, and V of the instrument were adapted from a survey used by George (1980) in a study of the roles of assistant and associate deans in schools of nursing. Section IV of the instrument was adapted from a study by Hayble-Mobote (1984), who examined the roles

of academic deans who held specifically middle-management, line positions. The researcher estimated that respondents would need 15 to 20 minutes to complete the instrument.

George (1980) "postulated that associate and assistant deans were administrators who fulfilled key leadership and managerial functions related to those performed by deans. Thus, it followed that their roles required managerial functions and career preparation experiences similar to those of deans" (pp. 9-10). To establish validity, George (1980) developed her instrument based on a review of literature. The second step included group discussions and interviews with "top level nursing education administrators and nursing faculty for the purpose of identifying roles and responsibilities within the deanship position" (p. 10). George also examined another questionnaire, related to professional leadership and career development, as a model for her instrument. That questionnaire included eight categories "used as a guide to design the present study which reflect managerial responsibilities within the education setting. Items were constructed to indicate line activities" (p. 11). Finally, George's questionnaire was sent to nursing school faculty in the Midwest to complete. The items adapted from George's survey instrument for this study include nominal-level variables.

Hayble-Mobote (1984) also based her instrument, which used a Likert-type scale, on a review of literature. To establish validity, Hayble-Mobote asked her doctoral committee to critique the survey instrument. As a pretest, she then asked a group of six individuals at two institutions to "review, validate, and offer suggestions for the modification of the research tool" (p. 91). Next, for a pilot test, 25 individuals at other universities within the same athletic conference critiqued the instrument. These individuals were not included in the sample used by Hayble-Mobote for the major study. The comments received from those three groups were incorporated into Hayble-Mobote's final survey instrument. The items selected for this study included a Likert-type scale (ordinal-level variables) that measured the roles and functions of a dean. Reliability was established

by an alpha reliability coefficient: "an alpha reliability coefficient test was performed on questions that comprised the administrative roles scale of the academic dean. The test score results in a .89, indicating a high degree of reliability of the questions" (p. 100). According to DeVillis (1991), "Alpha is an indication of the proportion of variance in the scale scores that is attributed to the true score" (p. 83). Scores between .80 and .90 are considered "very good" (p. 85).

The instrument for this study, A Study of Assistant and Associate Deans, contained five sections:

Section I - Demographic Data

Section II - Line or Staff Positions for Assistant and Associate Deans

Section III - Professional Development Activities

Section IV - Assistant/Associate Deans' Roles/Functions

Section V - Stated Perceptions by Assistant and Associate Deans

Section I, Demographic Data, provided demographic data for each respondent: gender, age, highest degree earned, position of associate or assistant dean, number of years in the position, prior academic and professional positions held, number of years of teaching experience in higher education, number of years of administrative experience in higher education, current academic rank and tenure status, teaching load each semester or quarter, current salary range, and amount of time spent on research, classroom teaching, administrative responsibilities, and/or other duties. According to Rudestam and Newton (1992), when a demographic section is added to an instrument, "We [the authors] do not consider adding such questions to a battery of existing instruments in the same context as 'scale development' " (p. 69).

To obtain a holistic view of job holders, Section II, Line or Staff Positions for Assistant and Associate Deans, allowed assistant and associate deans to provide perceptions about whether they consider their positions to be line or staff. Questions included respondents' (assistant deans' and associate deans') perceptions of their positions

as either line or staff. Other questions related to job descriptions, reporting relationships, salary compensation, and the number of assistant and associate deans in the respondent's school or college.

Section III, Professional Development Activities, focused on professional development activities of assistant and associate deans. That section included questions related to participation in professional and campus activities and in continuing education (e.g., attending programs for higher education administration, applications of information technology).

Section IV, Assistant/Associate Deans' Roles/Functions, focused on the administrative roles and responsibilities of assistant and associate deans. Respondents used a Likert-type scale to answer 22 items. If an item was not applicable, a respondent marked "N/A."

Section V, Stated Perceptions by Assistant and Associate Deans, included open-ended and short-answer questions about perceptions by assistant and associate deans as to: participation in an academic administrative internship during doctoral study, perceptions about likes and dislikes of each respondent's role, recommendations on whether or not to make changes in their position, and potential career advancement to a deanship.

For convenient sorting, the researcher used color coding to separate respondents by the four classifications, described by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching: blue paper for Research Universities I; salmon paper for Research Universities II; yellow paper for Doctoral Universities I; and green paper for Doctoral Universities II. To insure anonymity of respondents, no identifying marks were used on the instrument .

Pilot Study

According to Gall, Borg, and Gall (1996), "A pilot study involves small-scale testing of the procedures that you plan to use in the main study, and revising the procedures based on what the test reveals" (p. 65). For the pilot study, 12 associate deans in various

academic disciplines (colleges of Arts and Sciences, Applied Science and Technology, Business, Education, Nursing, Public and Allied Health and the Graduate School) at East Tennessee State University completed the proposed instrument. These individuals also commented about the instrument. The results of the pilot study, as well as comments made by individuals in the pilot study, were compiled and shared with the researcher's advisor. Although comments made by individuals in the pilot study were incorporated into the final instrument, they were not included for the major study. Additional comments and review of the instrument came from the researcher's doctoral committee.

Data Analysis

Analysis of the data collected included nonparametric and parametric statistical tests. The researcher used a statistical computer program, Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), to analyze the data.

For Sections I, II, III, and V, frequencies and percentages were used for the nominal-level variable, assistant dean/associate dean. The items included questions 6-23. George (1980) used frequencies and percentages to report corresponding items in her study. Polit and Hungler (1995) state that a frequency distribution "consists basically of two parts: the observed values or measurements (the Xs) and the frequency or count of the observations falling in each class (the *f*s)" (p. 372).

Chi-square analysis was used for items that required a "yes" or "no" response. These items included 47, 48, 49, 50, 51. Chi-square tests, a nonparametric statistical test for nominal-level variables (Polit & Hungler, 1995), are "computed by comparing two sets of frequencies: observed frequencies . . . and expected frequencies" (p. 419). According to Hinkle, Wiersma, and Jurs (1994), "A null hypothesis is stated, a test statistic is computed, the observed value of the test statistic is compared to the critical value, and a decision is made whether or not to reject the null hypothesis" (p. 538). The Chi-square analysis was used to compare frequencies on the dichotomous variable of dean among assistant deans

and associate deans in professional schools or discipline. The alpha level of .05 was the level of significance used. Statistical analysis established relationships between assistant and associate deans on whether they perceive 1) that deans discern their positions as line or staff, 2) that faculty discern their positions as line or staff, and 3) that assistant and associate deans perceive their own positions as line or staff.

Two items in Section V (questions 45 and 46 from the survey) required a maximum of three answers. A multiple response method was used to organize the responses into the following themes: 1) faculty; 2) students; 3) working relationship with dean and staff; 4) paperwork and bureaucracy; 5) meetings; 6) technology; 7) personal views about position; 8) research and teaching; 9) external and internal contact; 10) financial resources; and 11) decision-making, problem-solving, and policy-making.

Section IV, the Assistant/Associate Deans' Roles/Functions, used a Likert-type scale, an ordinal-level measurement. Factor analysis which evaluates construct validity (Huck & Cormier, 1996) was used to reduce the number of items to factors. According to Polit and Hungler (1995), factor analysis is "a statistical procedure for reducing a large set of variables into a smaller set of variables with common characteristics or underlying dimensions" (p. 642). To reduce the number of items to factors, a varimax or orthogonal procedure was followed. Varimax factors represent uncorrelated factors (Jaeger, 1990). Varimax is a rotation procedure; "All rotation procedures seek to determine a set of factors that clearly represent differing subgroups of the original set of variables" (Jaeger, 1990, p. 350). Respondents could choose "undecided," or if an item was not applicable, a respondent marked "N/A." Originally any item marked "N/A" was coded as a 6. To complete the factor analysis, "N/A" was re-coded leaving the item blank. Some cases were left out of the factor analysis when a respondent omitted answering items.

Six Composites were determined by using varimax factor analysis. Only Composites One, Curriculum; Two, Administrative Leadership and Relationships; and Three, Budget; were analyzed for this study. A three-way ANOVA was used to examine

Composites One, Curriculum, and Three, Budget. The three-way ANOVA was used to compare gender, level of dean, and college/school. For Composite One, Curriculum, statistical analysis determined a two-way interaction between gender and level of dean. For Composite Three, Budget, statistical analysis determined statistical significance for level of dean. However, no test of simple main effects was conducted because of a lack of two-way interaction between gender and level of dean. To analyze Composite Two, two statistical procedures were used because homogeneity of variance was not reached. For the first statistical procedure, a three-way ANOVA was also used to compare gender, level of dean, and college/school. Statistical analysis determined a two-way interaction between gender and level of dean. For the second statistical procedure, a one-way ANOVA was used for Leadership and the nominal-level variable, college/school. Separate t-tests were used for Leadership and the nominal-level variables, gender and level of dean. The t-test for Leadership and level of dean revealed significant statistical relationships as reported in Chapter 4.

CHAPTER 4

DATA ANALYSIS

This study tested patterns and relationships by comparing and contrasting the roles of assistant and associate deans in the colleges or schools related to the disciplines of business, education, and arts and sciences within four different classifications of institutions [Research Universities I and II and Doctoral Universities I and II], as described by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching (The Chronicle of Higher Education, 1997). This study surveyed only the perceptions of associate and assistant deans. One set of perceptions of associate and assistant deans included determining whether their positions were line or staff. A second set of perceptions comprised the career progression by associate and assistant deans to a deanship at their own or another institution. This study also compared the effect of gender, level of dean, and college/school for three composite scores in the areas of Curriculum, Administrative Leadership and Relationships, and Budget.

Chapter four presents the results of the data analysis. It provides a summary of demographic data about the associate and assistant deans, presented in frequencies and percentages. Statistical analysis of 32 null hypotheses tested in this study are presented in two sections, the first, for chi-square statistics, and the second, for factor analysis and three-way ANOVA. All of the null hypotheses, tested at the significance level of .05, are displayed sequentially.

Of the 452 surveys mailed, 251 surveys were returned, a return rate of 55.5%.

Descriptive Data of Respondents

The demographic data provided a profile of the respondents in the survey. Cross-tabulations were run on the nominal level variable, associate and assistant deans. The survey was intended to be answered only by individuals who had the title of either

associate dean or assistant dean. Some surveys were returned by individuals who were no longer an associate or assistant dean or declined to complete the survey for various reasons. One survey was returned because the potential respondent had died and a successor had not been named.

Table 2 presents a breakdown of respondents according to Carnegie Level of Institution.

TABLE 2

RESPONDENTS BY LEVEL OF INSTITUTION

Level of Institution	Associate Dean		Assistant Dean	
	n	%	n	%
Research Universities I	77	40.3	19	31.7
Research Universities II	31	16.2	12	20.0
Doctoral Universities I	43	22.6	17	28.3
Doctoral Universities II	40	20.9	12	20.0
Total	191	100.0	60	100.0

As shown in Table 2, associate deans outnumbered assistant deans by three to one. The largest total of respondents in the study came from Research Universities I. Similarly, the largest number of respondents of associate deans and assistant deans in the study came from Research Universities I; in fact, the largest group of potential respondents in the target population comprised those from Research Universities I.

Table 3 reports data about the respondents' gender.

TABLE 3

GENDER OF RESPONDENTS

Gender	Associate Dean n	Associate Dean %	Assistant Dean n	Assistant Dean %
Male	127	66.5	27	45.0
Female	64	33.5	33	55.0
Total	191	100.0	60	100.0

As shown in Table 3, there were twice as many male associate deans as female associate deans. However, the number of male and female assistant deans was more evenly distributed.

Table 4 summarizes the data for the age of respondents.

TABLE 4

AGE OF RESPONDENTS

Age Range	Associate Dean n	Associate Dean %	Assistant Dean n	Assistant Dean %
30 years or under	0	0.0	0	0.0
31 to 40 years	11	5.8	11	18.3
41 to 50 years	71	37.2	20	33.3
51 to 60 years	95	49.7	21	35.0
61 years or over	14	7.3	8	13.4
Total	191	100.0	60	100.0

As shown in Table 4, the highest percentage of associate deans and assistant deans fell in two age ranges, 41 to 50 years and 51 to 60 years, with associate deans slightly older than assistant deans. Of the assistant deans, the age ranges of 41 to 50 years and 51 to 60 years were almost evenly divided.

Table 5 indicates the years in which respondents obtained their highest degree.

TABLE 5

RANGE OF YEARS RESPONDENTS OBTAINED HIGHEST DEGREE (BACHELOR'S, MASTER'S, OR DOCTORATE

Range of Years Degree Awarded	Associate Dean		Assistant Dean	
	n	%	n	%
1958-1960	3	1.6	0	0.0
1961-1965	5	2.6	3	5.1
1966-1970	31	16.3	4	6.9
1971-1975	45	23.6	9	15.4
1976-1980	52	27.3	9	15.4
1981-1985	30	15.8	10	17.2
1986-1990	17	9.0	12	20.6
1991-1995	7	3.7	8	13.8
1996-1998	0	0.0	3	5.2
Total	190	100.0	58	100.0

As shown in Table 5, approximately 50% of the associate deans obtained their highest degree between 1971 through 1980. Approximately 50% of the assistant deans obtained their highest degree between 1971 through 1985.

Table 6 presents the data on the highest degree the associate and assistant deans received.

TABLE 6

HIGHEST DEGREE OBTAINED BY RESPONENTS

Degree	Associate Dean		Assistant Dean	
	n	%	n	%
Bachelor's	1	.5	2	3.4
Master's	7	3.7	21	36.2
Doctoral	182	95.8	35	60.3
Total	190	100.0	58	100.0

As shown in Table 6, a high percentage of associate and assistant deans obtained a doctoral degree. More assistant deans than associate deans had only a master's degree. One respondent (not included in the count) reported having only a high school diploma. Some respondents were in the process of pursuing doctoral degrees, primarily in education. Some respondents stated that their position only required a master's degree.

Table 7 indicates the breakdown of associate and assistant deans by college or school of business, education, and arts and sciences.

TABLE 7

RESPONDENTS' COLLEGE OR SCHOOL OF EDUCATION, BUSINESS, AND ARTS AND SCIENCES

College/School	Associate Dean n	Associate Dean %	Assistant Dean n	Assistant Dean %
Education	47	24.6	15	25.0
Business	46	24.1	25	41.7
Arts & Sciences	98	51.3	20	33.3
Total	191	100.0	60	100.0

As shown in Table 7, the largest percentage of respondents for associate deans came from colleges of arts and sciences or their equivalent. An almost equal number of respondents came from colleges of education and business. For assistant deans, the largest percentage of respondents came from colleges of business. However, the range of respondents from colleges of education and colleges of arts and sciences was five above and below the number of respondents from colleges of business.

Table 8 shows data regarding the number of years associate deans and assistant had been in their positions.

As Table 8 reported, approximately 75% of the associate deans and assistant deans had been in their positions for five years or less. The average number of years respondents had held their position was 4.95 years.

TABLE 8

YEARS HELD POSITION IN INSTITUTION

Range of Number of Years Position Held	Associate Dean n	Associate Dean %	Assistant Dean n	Assistant Dean %
0 through 5 years	133	72.3	44	75.8
6-10 years	26	14.0	10	17.1
11-15 years	16	8.6	3	5.1
16-20 years	6	3.2	1	1.7
21-25 years	2	1.0	0	0.0
26-28 years	1	.5	0	0.0
Total	184	100.0	58	100 .0

In Table 9, respondents reported prior academic and professional positions which they had held at previous institutions. The frequencies and percentages for each prior position were based on the total number of respondents in the survey, 191 associate deans and 60 assistant deans.

As shown in Table 9, the highest response by associate deans and assistant deans for prior academic/professional positions was in teaching, 82.2% and 66.7% respectively. A small percentage of associate deans (18.3%) reported having been assistant deans. On the other hand, a small percentage of assistant deans (3.3%) had been associate deans. A number of associate deans had held several administrative positions, including department chair, graduate program director, and undergraduate program director. Conversely, a smaller percentage of assistant deans reported holding the same positions. Both associate deans and assistant deans had held professional positions in a state or federal government.

However, a higher percentage of assistant deans than associate deans had held a professional position in a national or state professional organization.

TABLE 9

PRIOR ACADEMIC/PROFESSIONAL POSITIONS

HELD AT ANY INSTITUTION

Position	Associate Dean n	Associate Dean %	Assistant Dean n	Assistant Dean %
Interim Administrator	40	20.9	9	15.0
Dean in College/School	3	1.6	0	0.0
Department chair in your discipline	75	39.3	6	10.0
Department chair of a unit not within your discipline	14	7.3	3	5.0
Graduate Program Director	57	29.8	11	18.3
Undergraduate Program Director	37	19.4	7	11.7
Associate Dean	49	25.7	2	3.3
Assistant Dean	35	18.3	7	11.7
Teaching position	157	82.2	40	66.7
Professional position in a state or federal government	12	6.3	3	5.0
Professional Position in a National or State Professional Organization	14	7.3	8	13.3
Military Service	17	8.9	5	8.3
Other	44	23.0	34	56.7

Several respondents marked the category "Other." Most respondents' activities fell into three areas: private employment, K-12, and higher education. Private employment

included industry, practice of law, private consulting, accounting and investments. A few respondents had held administrative positions or had been teachers and/or principals. Regarding higher education, respondents held positions with the titles of director, acting director, assistant director, clinic director, advisor, counselor, department program coordinator, assistant to the dean, associate vice president, and provost. Respondents also held positions in the areas of student services, admissions, freshmen advising, field experiences, support services, undergraduate studies, research professor, off campus centers, continuing studies, field and laboratory experiences, honors programs, academic programs, and development and alumni relations. One respondent had been a secretary, administrative assistant, and assistant to the dean. A few respondents marked this category regarding service to professional societies, e.g., a present or former officer.

Table 10 displays data about years of teaching in higher education for associate and assistant deans.

As shown in Table 10, the respondents had a wide range of experience in teaching. The range of experience extended from zero to 41 years. The average number of years taught was 19.84 years. Approximately 66% of associate deans had between 16 and 30 years of teaching experience. Of the assistant deans, 66% had between 0 and 20 years of teaching experience.

TABLE 10

YEARS TAUGHT IN HIGHER EDUCATION

Range of Number of Years Taught	Associate Dean		Assistant Dean	
	n	%	n	%
0-5 years	12	6.4	14	25.0
6-10 years	10	5.2	8	14.4
11-15 years	24	12.6	6	10.8
16-20 years	32	16.8	9	16.1
21-25 years	51	26.9	4	7.2
26-30 years	43	22.6	11	19.7
31-35 years	13	7.0	3	5.4
36-40 years	4	2.1	1	1.8
over 40 years	1	.5	0	0.0
Total	190	100.0	56	100.0

Table 11 provides data on the number of years of administrative experience the respondents have accrued in higher education. As shown in Table 11, 78% of the associate deans and 78.2% of the associate deans had 15 or fewer years of administrative experience. The average number of years of administrative experience was 10.38 years.

TABLE 11

YEARS OF ADMINISTRATIVE EXPERIENCE

Number of Years	Associate Dean n	Associate Dean %	Assistant Dean n	Assistant Dean %
0-5 years	60	31.4	15	25.0
6-10 years	54	28.3	19	31.6
11-15 years	35	18.3	13	21.6
16-20 years	24	12.5	9	15.0
21-25 years	13	6.8	2	3.3
26-30 years	4	2.0	2	3.3
over 30 years	1	.5	0	0.0
Total	191	100.0	60	100.0

Table 12 indicates the current academic rank of each respondent. As shown in Table 12, of the 189 responses by associate deans, 63.5% held the academic rank of professor, followed by 30.2% who held the rank of associate professor. On the other hand, of the 58 responses by assistant deans, 34.5% did not hold academic rank. Sixteen individuals (27.6%) held the rank of associate professor. Of the remaining academic ranks, several held the academic rank of professor (15.5%), followed by instructor/lecturer (13.8%), then assistant professor (8.6%).

TABLE 12

CURRENT ACADEMIC RANK

Academic Rank	Associate Dean n	Associate Dean %	Assistant Dean n	Assistant Dean %
Instructor/Lecturer	4	2.1	8	13.8
Assistant Professor	2	1.1	5	8.6
Associate Professor	57	30.2	16	27.6
Professor	120	63.5	9	15.5
None	6	3.2	20	34.5
Total	189	100.0	58	100.0

Table 13 lists respondents' tenure status.

TABLE 13

TENURE STATUS

Type of Tenure	Associate Dean n	Associate Dean %	Assistant Dean n	Assistant Dean %
Tenured	133	88.7	21	43.8
Tenure Track	2	1.3	1	2.1
Not eligible for tenure	15	10.0	26	54.2
Total	150	100.0	48	100.0

In Table 13, of the 150 responses by associate deans, 88.7% reported having tenure. However, 10% of the associate deans reported not being eligible for tenure. On the

other hand, of the 48 responses by assistant deans, 54.2% reported not being eligible for tenure; only 43.8% of the assistant deans held tenure.

In Table 14, data indicates whether associate and assistant deans were required to assume teaching duties.

TABLE 14

RESPONDENTS REQUIRED TO TEACH EACH SEMESTER/QUARTER

Yes or No	Associate Dean		Assistant Dean	
	n	%	n	%
Yes	90	48.9	23	40.4
No	94	51.1	34	59.6
Total	184	100.0	57	100.0

As shown in Table 14, of the associate deans, the responses were almost equally divided on whether or not they were required to teach. Approximately one-half of the associate deans and 59.6% of the assistant deans were not required to teach.

Table 15 reports the number of courses respondents were required to teach. As shown in Table 15, among the 100 associate deans who were required to teach, 91% were required to teach one course per semester or quarter. Of the 25 responses by assistant deans, 80% were required to teach one course per semester or quarter. Only a few associate deans and assistant deans were required to teach two courses each semester or quarter.

TABLE 15

COURSES TAUGHT EACH SEMESTER/QUARTER

Number of Courses	Associate Dean		Assistant Dean	
Semester/Quarter	n	%	n	%
1	91	91.0	20	80.0
2	9	9.0	5	20.0
Total	100	100.0	25	100.0

Table 16 shows the summary of the respondents' salary ranges.

TABLE 16

CURRENT SALARY RANGE

	Associate Dean		Assistant Dean	
Salary Range	n	%	n	%
$30,000-$39,000	0	0.0	0	0.0
$40,000-$49,000	0	0.0	7	11.7
$50,000-$59,000	10	5.2	7	11.7
$60,000-$69,000	17	8.9	16	26.7
$70,000-$79,000	39	20.4	19	31.7
$80,000 or more	125	65.4	11	18.3
Total	191	100.0	60	100.0

As shown in Table 16, 65.4% of the associate deans and 18.3% of the assistant deans earned $80,000 or more annually. The highest percentage of assistant deans fell in the salary range of $70,000-$79,000. For the assistant deans, salaries ranged from $40,000 to $80,000 or more. For the associate deans, salaries ranged from $50,000 to $80,000 or more.

Table 17 shows what type of contracts the associate and assistant deans had.

TABLE 17

MONTHS OF CONTRACT

Months of Contract	Associate Dean n	Associate Dean %	Assistant Dean n	Assistant Dean %
9	15	8.2	0	0.0
10	3	1.6	1	2.0
11	6	3.3	1	2.0
12	160	87.0	49	96.1
Total	184	100.0	51	100.0

As shown in Table 17, only a small percentage of associate and assistant deans did not have 12-month contracts. Only two (4%) of the 51 assistant deans who responded did not have 12-month contracts; of the 184 associate deans who responded, 24 (13.1%) did not have 12-month contracts.

Tables 18, 19, 20, and 21 show the percentage of time associate and assistant deans spent on administrative, teaching, research, and other responsibilities.

As shown in Table 18, the three highest percentages reported by associate deans spent on administrative duties were 70-79% (43 respondents), 80-89% (39 respondents),

and 50-59% (28 respondents). The three highest percentages reported by assistant deans on administrative duties were 100% (17 respondents), 50-59% (12 respondents), and 80-89% (9 respondents).

TABLE 18

PERCENTAGE OF TIME SPENT ON ADMINISTRATIVE RESPONSIBILITIES

	Associate Dean		Assistant Dean	
Percentages Reported	n	%	n	%
.20-.29	2	1.0	0	0.0
.30-.39	7	3.6	0	0.0
.40-.49	6	3.1	3	5.0
.50-.59	28	14.7	12	20.1
.60-.69	21	11.0	3	5.0
.70-.79	43	22.5	7	13.8
.80-.89	39	20.4	9	15.1
.90-.99	25	13.0	7	11.8
1.00	20	10.5	17	27.8
1.20	0	0.0	1	1.6
Total	191	100.0	59	100.0

As shown in Table 19, the two highest percentages reported by associate deans spent on classroom teaching were 10-19% (58 respondents) and 20-29% (52 respondents). The two highest percentages reported by assistant deans on classroom teaching were 10-19% (13 respondents) and 20-29% (11 respondents).

TABLE 19

PERCENTAGE OF TIME SPENT ON CLASSROOM TEACHING

Percentages Reported	Associate Dean n	Associate Dean %	Assistant Dean n	Assistant Dean %
.01-.09	9	6.3	2	5.7
.10-.19	58	40.0	13	37.2
.20-.29	52	35.8	11	31.4
.30-.39	17	11.8	4	11.5
.40-.49	3	2.1	0	0.0
.50	6	4.1	5	14.2
Total	145	100.0	35	100.0

As shown in Table 20, the two highest percentages reported by associate deans spent on research were 10-19% (53 respondents) and 20-29% (34 respondents). The two highest percentages reported by assistant deans on research were 10-19% (12 respondents) and a tie at 1-10% (5 respondents) and 20-29% (5 respondents).

TABLE 20

PERCENTAGE OF TIME SPENT ON RESEARCH

Percentages Reported	Associate Dean n	Associate Dean %	Assistant Dean n	Assistant Dean %
.01-.09	39	27.1	5	20.8
.10-.19	53	36.9	12	50.0
.20-.29	34	23.6	5	20.8
.30-.39	11	7.7	2	8.3
.40-.49	6	4.2	0	0.0
.50	1	.7	0	0.0
Total	144	100.0	24	100.0

As shown in Table 21, the two highest percentages reported by associate deans spent on other activities were 01-09% (12 respondents) and 10-19% (14 respondents). The two highest percentages reported by assistant deans spent on other activities were 20-29% (6 respondents) and 10-19% (4 respondents). The category for "other activities" included activities for committees, doctoral and dissertation advising, writing, professional service, responsibility for special research programs, adjunct professor at another institution, fundraising, departmental activities, consulting, and grant activities.

TABLE 21

PERCENTAGE OF TIME SPENT ON OTHER ACTIVITIES

Percentages Reported	Associate Dean n	Associate Dean %	Assistant Dean n	Assistant Dean %
.00	3	9.1	0	0.0
.01-.09	12	36.4	2	12.4
.10-.19	14	42.5	4	25.0
.20-.29	1	3.0	6	37.5
.30-.39	1	3.0	0	0.0
.40-49	1	3.0	0	0.0
.50	0	0.0	3	18.8
.80	1	3.0	1	6.3
Total	33	100.0	16	100.0

Table 22 presents the mean, standard deviation, and range of time spent on activities (administrative, classroom teaching, research, other) reported by associate and assistant deans.

As shown in Table 22, associate and assistant deans spent approximately three-fourths of their time on administrative responsibilities, followed by 20% for classroom teaching. The means for Research and Other Activities were almost equal.

TABLE 22

TIME SPENT ON ACTIVITIES

Category	Time 1 Administrative Responsibilities n=250	Time 2 Classroom Teaching n=180	Time 3 Research n=168	Time 4 Other Activities n=49
Mean	.7344	.2009	.1474	.1598
SD	.1947	.1131	.1012	.1824
Range	1.000	.49	.49	.80

Table 23 reports on whether associate and assistant deans had a written job description.

TABLE 23

WRITTEN JOB DESCRIPTION FOR ASSISTANT AND ASSOCIATE DEANS

Job Description	Associate Dean n	Associate Dean %	Assistant Dean n	Assistant Dean %
Yes	106	56.1	43	71.8
No	76	40.2	13	21.7
I don't know	7	3.7	4	6.7
Total	189	100.0	60	100.0

As shown in Table 23, of the 189 associate deans' responses, over one-half stated they had a written job description. Of the 60 assistant deans' responses, almost three-

fourths stated they had a written job description. The surprising statistic, although a small percentage for both associate and assistant deans, was that some individuals did not know whether they had a written job description.

Table 24 displays hierarchical reporting relationships of associate and assistant deans. The numbers in the table reflect frequencies (n) and the percentage of the total number of respondents who marked each category.

TABLE 24

PERSONNEL WHO REPORT DIRECTLY TO ASSISTANT AND ASSOCIATE DEANS

Personnel	Associate Dean n	Associate Dean %	Assistant Dean n	Assistant Dean %
Support Staff	180	76.9	54	23.1
Faculty	27	77.1	8	22.9
Department Chairs	28	87.5	4	12.5
Other	64	66.7	32	33.3

As shown in Table 24, in many institutions, department chairs, and faculty reported to both associate deans and assistant deans. Support staff showed the highest number of reporting relationships to associate deans and assistant deans. The category "Other," includes individuals with the titles of directors, coordinators, advisors, computer support staff, development officers, student workers, college registrars, statistical personnel, advisors, counselors, librarians, program directors, research staff, program interns, managers, adjunct faculty, associate and assistant deans, and college business office staff. Several respondents stated reporting relationships for graduate and undergraduate students, e.g., research assistants, and graduate teaching assistants. Most of the reporting

relationships were in professional positions. They included individuals involved with undergraduate and graduate programs, college student service offices, admissions, placement offices, business offices, research teams, computer operations, fundraising, committee chairs, and technology.

In Table 25, respondents indicated the type(s) of additional salary compensation received when they became associate or assistant deans. The numbers in the table reflect frequencies (n) and the percentage of the total number of respondents who marked each category.

TABLE 25

ADDITIONAL SALARY COMPENSATION

Personnel	Associate Dean n	Associate Dean %	Assistant Dean n	Assistant Dean %
Minimal	22	11.5	6	10.0
Receive a stipend	59	30.9	10	16.7
Approximately 10-20 percent above current salary	55	28.8	19	31.7
Approximately 21-30 percent above current salary	25	13.1	12	20.0
More than 30 percent above current salary	10	5.2	1	1.7
Did not receive additional compensation	21	11.0	7	11.7

As shown in Table 25, an almost equal number of associate deans reported receiving a stipend or compensation approximately 10-20% above current salary. Among

assistant deans, the highest percentage of responses included receiving compensation approximately 10-20% above current salary. Several associate deans and assistant deans reported not receiving any additional compensation or only a minimal increase.

Table 26 shows respondents' answers when asked to state how many assistant and associate deans hold appointments in their school or college.

TABLE 26

NUMBER OF ASSISTANT AND ASSOCIATE DEANS THAT HOLD APPOINTMENTS IN RESPONDENT'S SCHOOL OR COLLEGE

Number	Associate Dean		Assistant Dean	
	n	%	n	%
1	19	10.1	10	16.8
2	60	31.7	15	25.0
3	50	26.5	17	28.3
4	24	12.7	8	13.3
5	31	16.4	8	13.3
6	3	1.6	0	0.0
7	1	.5	0	0.0
8	0	0.0	2	3.3
12	1	.5	0	0.0
Total	189	100.0	60	100.0

As shown in Table 26, the largest percentage of associate deans served in a college or school with a total of two associate and assistant deans (31.7%). The second highest percentage of associate deans worked with three associate and assistant deans (26.5%).

The largest percentage of assistant deans in a college or school had a total of three associate and assistant deans (28.3%). The second highest percentage of assistant deans had two associate and assistant deans (25.0%). Although the survey only asked for responses from one to five for the total number of associate and assistant deans in a respondent's school or college, some associate and assistant deans reported numbers more than five; the actual numbers are stated by these few respondents.

Table 27 presents a summary of activities completed by the respondents during the past three years.

TABLE 27

ACTIVITIES RESPONDENTS PARTICIPATED IN DURING PAST THREE YEARS

	Associate Dean		Assistant Dean	
Number	n	%	n	%
Visited similar programs	61	31.9	28	46.7
Held office or committee membership in a professional organization other than in your discipline	42	22.0	19	31.7
Held office or committee membership in a national or state association in your discipline	80	41.9	18	30.0
Participated in campus policy making committee	177	92.7	48	80.0
Presented papers at professional meeting or conference	141	73.8	23	38.3
Published book(s) or article(s)	117	61.3	22	36.7
Conducted research study	123	64.4	20	33.3
Served as a consultant	102	53.4	27	45.0
Other professional projects	30	15.7	14	23.3

As shown in Table 27, the four most frequent activities by the associate deans included participating in campus policy making committees, presenting papers at professional meetings or conferences, conducting research studies, and publishing book(s) or article(s). The four most frequent activities by the assistant deans comprised of participating in campus policy making committees, visiting programs like their own, serving as consultants, and presenting papers at professional meetings or conferences. For the activity "Other," respondents' activities included workshops, professional meetings, presentations (on- and off-campus), serving as project directors, teaching, fulfilling professional and societal obligations (e.g., editor, reviewer), resident faculty member in dorms, adjunct professor at other institutions, evaluating dissertations from other countries, grant activities, holding positions or providing service to state government and local agencies, chairing dissertations, serving on search committees, attending concerts and recitals, participating in distance learning, and testifying at legislative sessions.

Table 28 shows a summary of formal education in administration training and/or acquired by the respondents during the past three years.

As shown in Table 28, the four major activities in formal administration training and education completed by the associate deans and the assistant deans included attending professional conferences related to higher education administration, reading books related to higher education administration, participating in programs related to information technology and its application, and reading books related to other areas (e.g., total quality management, fiscal management). An almost equal percentage of associate deans (23.6%) and assistant deans (23.3%) had participated in continuing education programs related to higher education administration. For the activity "Other" respondents stated they had attended internal management training, participated in workshops for administrators, (e.g., sexual harassment, ADA, leadership), attended professional conferences, served as reviewers for other college of education programs for a state system, completed professional certifications, and completed non-degree and non-credit courses.

TABLE 28

FORMAL EDUCATION ADMINISTRATION TRAINING/EDUCATION RESPONDENTS OBTAINED DURING PAST THREE YEARS

Training/Education	Associate Dean n	Associate Dean %	Assistant Dean n	Assistant Dean %
Completed courses leading to doctoral degree in educational administration	2	1.0	8	13.3
Completed courses leading to master's degree in educational administration	0	0.0	1	1.7
Participated in continuing education programs related to higher education administration	45	23.6	14	23.3
Participated in programs related to information technology and its application	85	44.5	35	58.3
Attended professional conferences related to higher education administration	106	55.5	40	66.7
Read books related to higher education administration	103	53.9	34	56.7
Read books related to other areas (e.g., total quality management, fiscal management)	83	43.5	35	58.3
Other	17	8.9	10	16.7

Table 29 presents a synopsis of experience or expertise respondents would like to seek for their own continued administrative development during the next three years.

TABLE 29

EXPERIENCES OR EXPERTISE RESPONDENTS WOULD LIKE TO SEEK FOR THEIR OWN CONTINUED ADMINISTRATIVE DEVELOPMENT

Administrative Development	Associate Dean n	Associate Dean %	Assistant Dean n	Assistant Dean %
Complete courses leading to doctoral degree in educational administration	0	0.0	5	8.3
Complete courses leading to master's degree in educational administration	0	0.0	1	1.7
Participate in continuing education programs related to higher education administration	60	31.4	29	48.3
Participate in programs related to information technology and its application	87	45.5	35	58.3
Attend professional conferences related to higher education administration	112	58.6	41	68.3
Read books related to higher education administration	88	46.1	25	41.7
Read books related to other areas (e.g., total quality management, fiscal management)	62	32.5	23	38.3
Other	16	8.4	7	11.7

As shown in Table 29, the five most frequent responses by associate deans included attending professional conferences related to higher education administration, reading books related to higher education administration, participating in programs related to information technology and its application, reading books related to other areas (e.g.,

total quality management and fiscal management), and participating in continuing education programs related to higher education administration. The five most frequent responses by associate deans included attending professional conferences related to higher education administration, participating in programs related to information technology and its application, participating in continuing education programs related to higher education administration, reading books related to higher education administration, and reading books related to other areas (e.g., total quality management, fiscal management).

For the activity "Other" respondents wanted to seek continued administrative development through professional conferences, seminars and workshops (e.g., development officers, advancement, research, grant and contract administration, business strategy, time management, supervising and managing people, distance education). A few respondents wanted to take additional courses. One respondent wanted "More peer group interaction. I have 3 or more colleagues from similar-size programs whom I routinely check with but I wish we had our own 'support' group which met." Another respondent wanted to attend "workshops, [read] books, [attend] seminars or the like dealing with 1) strategic planning/implementation, 2) time management, 3) hints for supervising people - 'I have no experience with it and have made some mistakes'." From all of the activities listed in Question 23, a third respondent stated "Take more French, also Greek. The other projects on this list sound really boring!" Several respondents stated they were retiring soon or returning to teaching.

Respondents could provide a maximum of three answers to questions 45 and 46. Question 45 asked "What three things do you enjoy most about the assistant or associate dean's role?" Question 46 asked "What three things do you most dislike about the assistant or associate dean's role?" The answers for survey questions 45 and 46 were generated by using a multiple response statistical procedure with these categories: faculty, student, working with dean and staff, paperwork and bureaucracy, meetings, technology, personal view about position, research and teaching, external/internal contacts, fiscal resources, and

decision-making, policy making, and problem-solving. For question 45, 178 associate deans and 59 assistant deans provided answers.

TABLE 30

MULTIPLE RESPONSE: THREE THINGS ASSISTANT AND ASSOCIATE DEANS ENJOY ABOUT THEIR ROLE

Category	Associate Dean n	Associate Dean %	Assistant Dean n	Assistant Dean %
Faculty	65	36.5	8	13.6
Students	59	33.1	31	52.5
Working with dean and staff; other administrators	35	19.7	9	15.3
Paperwork and Bureaucracy	1	.6	0	0.0
Meetings	0	0.0	1	1.7
Technology	4	2.2	1	1.7
Personal view about position	152	85.4	51	86.4
Research and Teaching	13	7.3	7	11.9
External/Internal Contacts	68	38.2	25	42.4
Fiscal Resources	14	7.9	4	6.8
Decision-making, policy-making, problem-solving	95	53.4	31	52.5

As shown in Table 30, the four most frequent responses by associate deans included personal views about their position; decision-making, policy-making, and problem-solving; faculty; and external/internal contacts. The four most frequent responses by assistant deans comprised personal views about position; decision-making, policy-

making, and problem-solving; students; and external/internal contacts. Of the four most frequent responses, the assistant deans tied on the following categories: decision-making, policy-making, problem-solving, and students.

Responses by associate deans and assistant deans of their personal view about position included autonomy, responsibility and variety of duties, learning more about higher education, level of authority, visibility, respect and credibility of position, and personal and professional development. Regarding autonomy, authority, and responsibility, several respondents liked "'Being in charge; having some authority to initiate and implement so it's easier to accomplish what needs to be done," "Considerable autonomy over my time and direction," "Wide range of responsibility," "Responsibility," "Autonomy in most of my activities," "Flexibility to utilize my strengths (public speaking/relationships) and move away from my weaknesses (administration)," "Being in control of my own programs," "Autonomy in developing co-curricular programs," "Power to control," and "Flexibility and autonomy of time to be creative and attend to professional organizational activities." Other respondents liked "Diversity," "Ability to make some decisions quickly," "I can choose how to do my work," "Creative efforts," "Level of authority," "Autonomy - Dean allows me to run campus," "Semi-autonomy of separate campus," "The total realm of responsibility," "Controlling my own schedule," "My autonomy," and "Discretion over priorities within reason." Still others noted "Flexibility of job," "Independence to grow my program, " "Diversity of responsibilities," "Variety of roles/activities - recruitment, curriculum, awards, advising, placement," "Creating a new position and defining the job as I go," "Variety in job," "The diversity of activities," "Opportunity to work independently on important/interesting issues," "Ability to initiate and conduct important projects," "Changes everyday," and "Most of my duties and responsibilities."

A few respondents also mentioned the importance of being involved with "the bigger picture" at the college and university levels. Respondents mentioned that "I get to

see more of the 'big picture' at the university," "Involvement in The Bigger Picture of the College," "Being able to see the 'big' picture," and "Understanding 'big picture.'" Other respondents liked "Leadership in implementing missions and goals of the college and following through to completion," "Having college wide impact, making a difference," "Opportunity to learn more about higher education," "Gaining insight into the 'world of higher education,'" "The ability to make a positive difference in business school." Some respondents noted "Helping shape the agenda for the College," "Working with Dean's office staff for development of College," "Broadened environment," and "Gaining university wide perspective."

Several respondents stated the importance of having responsibility for budget and financial planning, space allocation, and internal college operations, specifying that they liked "Academic operations," "Administering equipment budget," "Allocating funds," "Making budget decisions," "Space and financial planning," "Financial and personnel affairs," "Administrating completing the college's summer session (including budget)," and "Oversee[ing] of College's financial matters." Similarly, respondents liked "Budgetary power," "Being in charge of the overall college budgeting process," "Responsibilities developing new programs, resource acquisition," "Manage budget and resource allocation criteria/decisions," "Space administration," "Helping school achieve fiscal soundness," "Opportunities to strengthen and broaden impact of research and grants/contracts and technology with and beyond the college," "Participating in successful/useful endeavors, e.g., programs and grants," and "Responsibility for internal college operations."

Several individuals mentioned having the ability to make a difference, serving as advocates for departments within their college or school, resolving conflicts, and feeling a sense of accomplishment. Several respondents stated they liked "Advocating for interests of five Arts and Humanities departments," "Having an opportunity work with all the arts," "Seeing the changes that I have helped make" "Counseling chairs and faculty members on personnel issues" "Helping chairs resolve personnel conflicts," "Some ability to make a

difference," "Variety of issues of importance," "New challenges, something different from teaching and research, though temporarily," "Acting as representative of diverse programs." Many respondents mentioned "Ability to make things happen," "Accomplishing things - not just talking about them," "Serve in position to help others accomplish their goals," Helping others," "Helping committed people to do new things," "The opportunity to make a difference in the future of the institution," "The chance to be a part of a respected academic institution - I like the one I work for'," and "Involvement in university's growth." One respondent specified "Bringing a woman's perspective to higher education administration." Others received satisfaction from "Making a positive impact," "Personal sense of accomplishment," "Learning and growing with new initiatives," "Learning new approaches to education," "Opportunity to make a real difference," "Opportunities for professional and personal growth," "Working as part of a team," and "Learning more about my field."

Several respondents stated they had responsibility for curriculum, program development and evaluation, and fundraising. Regarding curriculum, several respondents stated that they liked chairing or being a member of a college-level curriculum committee, and initiating, overseeing, reviewing, and evaluating curriculum. For example, some respondents liked "Facilitating curriculum development," "Working with curriculum, I chair the college curriculum," "Making curriculum/programming improvements," "Opportunities to influence curriculum development," and "Ability to put curriculum preparation into action." Regarding program development and evaluation, respondents liked "Identifying and helping support the program strengths of the College," "Graduate program development," "Program development," "Curriculum/program development," "New academic program development/organization," "Program evaluation," and "Direct improvement of programs for sake of faculty and students." In the same vein, respondents appreciated "Requirement to consider larger context of administrative actions and policies," "Facilitating program development and improvement," "Instituting new programs," "Work

on academic program development," "Opportunity to develop new programs," and "Working w/Deans and Chairs in developing programs." Regarding fundraising, respondents liked "Building the endowment," "Excitement of major capital campaign," and "Effecting change/improvement through successful fundraising."

A few individuals mentioned perquisites they liked, namely, having a big office, control of travel allowance, wearing a tie, and a parking space. Some respondents liked "Personal development - leadership, administrative skills," "International travel opportunities," "Travel allowance," "No fixed hours," and "Observing the drama."

Several respondents cited the value of being able to participate in issues that involve decision-making, policy-making, and problem-solving. For example, regarding policy-making and decision-making, many respondents' comments included providing vision and influencing the direction at the college- or school-level; setting, executing, evaluating, and influencing college and sometimes university policies; serving as a change agent; determining strategic goals at the college or school level; initiating change; participating in budgeting process; and being part of a decision-making group. Several respondents simply listed the term, "problem-solving" as a positive part of their positions. For example, a typical response came from one respondent who saw the job as "Problem solving - finding ways to get things done." Other examples included facilitating favorable outcomes and solving and arbitrating personnel problems and issues. A specific example came from one respondent who enjoyed, "drawing on my years in the institution/[with] colleagues, etc., to find solution[s] to academic and political problems."

Comments that referred to faculty included working relationships; faculty senate governance; faculty recruitment and hiring decisions; faculty development; improving and facilitating scholarship, research and grant writing opportunities; promotion and tenure; and mentoring new faculty.

External contacts included referred to individuals outside of the respondents' institution. Examples of external contacts included fundraising; alumni; local/regional

business community; state and federal agencies, boards and commissions; and promoting the college and representing the university at professional meetings. Internal contacts pertained to contacts within the institution, excluding contact within the respondents' own college or school . Examples of internal contacts included working relationships and networking with administrators, faculty, and students in other disciplines and colleges; serving on university-level committees; participating in university-wide programs, leadership opportunities; and having access to information. Regarding the importance of having access to information, one respondent emphasized "Being abreast of substantive academic and 'political' news at the University." Another respondent reported "Serving as a source of academic information."

The category for Students included working with students, having contact with students outside the classroom, advising, serving as an advocate, selecting awards and providing research funding, making a positive impact on student life, and recruiting students.

The remaining categories listed in Table 30 included several comments by respondents for the category, Working with the dean and other administrators, related to positive working relationships with the dean and other college- or school-level administrators (e.g., associate and assistant deans, department chairs, directors) and support staff. For example, one respondent stated the importance of working toward "the development of the College." Other respondents mentioned "Assisting the Dean, administration and faculty with information they need to do their job," "Dean seeks my opinion on issues outside my primary area of expertise," and "Informal political advisor to the Dean." A few respondents mentioned enjoying leadership opportunities and working as a team with other colleagues. For example, one respondent felt that he or she was "Part of an outstanding team of Associate Deans, Chairs and support personnel!" and another respondent favored "Working as a team (in contrast to being more isolated as a faculty member)."

Fiscal resources referred to dealing with resources, resource allocation, influence on school's private funding, funds and authority to carry out projects, and budgets. Regarding budgets, one respondent emphasized "connecting budget issues to academic issues." Another respondent wrote that it was important to balance the college's budget, "8 of 9 years - after a decade of largely yearly deficits."

The category of Research and Teaching primarily referred to associate deans and assistant deans continuation of research and teaching activities while they held administrative appointments. One respondent mentioned the "ability and flexibility to conduct meaningful research." Another respondent stated the benefit of "teaching every day in my office (it's big and has a blackboard!)."

The category of Technology generated only a few responses. Respondents mentioned being involved in implementing technology for their college, learning more about technological changes and issues, and promoting the use of technology. Regarding the category, Meetings, one respondent wrote "Attend numerous meetings with all associate/assistant deans - we have the same problems - all academic units." For the category Paperwork and Bureaucracy, only one respondent stated "cutting through the red tape" as a pleasure of the position.

For Question 46, 178 associate deans and 57 assistant deans provided answers. These answers provided the data reflected in Table 31.

TABLE 31

MULTIPLE RESPONSE: THREE THINGS ASSISTANT AND ASSOCIATE DEANS MOST DISLIKE ABOUT THEIR ROLE

Category	Associate Dean		Assistant Dean	
	n	%	n	%
Faculty	29	16.3	11	19.3
Students	40	22.5	24	42.1
Working with dean and staff; other administrators	11	6.2	8	14.0
Paperwork and Bureaucracy	56	31.5	13	22.8
Meetings	26	14.6	8	14.0
Technology	0	0.0	1	1.8
Personal view about position	160	89.9	49	86.0
Research and Teaching	38	21.3	7	12.3
External/Internal Contacts	15	8.4	0	0.0
Fiscal Resources	32	18.0	16	28.1
Decision-making, policy-making, problem-solving	41	23.0	12	21.1

As shown in Table 31, the four most frequent responses by associate deans included personal views about positions; paperwork and bureaucracy; decision-making, policy-making, problem-solving; and students. The four most frequent responses by assistant deans comprised personal views about position; students; fiscal resources; and paperwork and bureaucracy.

A majority of the responses about dislikes by associate deans and assistant deans concerned their personal view about their position. Examples included time demands;

heavy workloads; long hours; lack of autonomy, authority, and responsibility; communication channels; arbitrating conflicts between or among students, faculty and/or staff; dealing with personnel issues; supervising and evaluating subordinates; changing from faculty to administrative role; perceptions by others about the position or role; legal and sexual harassment issues; and a lack of adequate preparation for the position.

Regarding workload, several respondents specified "Heavy workload" and "Long hours." Other respondents disliked "Having to juggle so many different duties at the same time, heavy load," "Heavy demands on time, stressful overload of meetings and deadlines at certain times of year," "Lack of time to do all that needs to be done," "Not enough time!!," "Endless hours. I usually work 70 hours/week." Similar complaints included "Always behind, can never catch up on work," "Extremely busy schedule during the academic year," "Not enough hours in the day," "Not enough time to complete all projects," Being rushed to the point of doing half jobs," "Time management is difficult," "Constant stress," and "Fifty percent (half-time) associate dean assignment is impossible!"

Regarding autonomy, authority, and responsibility, many respondents disliked the "Weak authority of position relative to faculty," "Overwhelming sense of always being in a reactive mode rather than proactive," "Turf protection," "Difficulty in planning time because of unexpected issues/crises that arise," "Great responsibility without full access to information needed," "Juggling the tactical (hands-on) work I need to do (i.e., reading files/interviewing applicants) with the strategic role I must play as well." Similar dislikes included "Pressure to perform in too many areas," "The lack of authority to hire/fire, but the responsibility for administering an excellent program," "Lack of autonomy to direct my unit without the second guessing of academics," "Feeling some people feel you need to do everything- you are high paid support staff person," "My position is fragmented and it is difficult to focus on a single duty," "Competing demands for attention," "More responsibility than authority," "Times when unplanned events become barriers to meeting important goals," and "Ambiguity regarding authority to make changes." Relevant dislikes

also mentioned "Trying not to lose track of all current projects but to follow through on and accomplish each," "New position-clarifying boundaries with university administrators," "Lack of role definitions," "Lots of routine in the job," "Tasks tend to be fragmented," "Heavy administrative responsibilities," "How everyone else's problems automatically become your own," "The job was overwhelming in terms of its scope," and "Year round responsibilities." A few respondents mentioned disliking the "social role" of their position; for example, "Social responsibilities," "Attending campus ceremonial events," and "Luncheons and other perfunctory events." One respondent mentioned the need for adequate preparation for position, the "Lack of higher educational administration preparation."

Several respondents made negative comments about specific responsibilities; for example, "Space issues (renovation and allocation)," "Frustration of dealing with space issues," "Almost totally internal activities," "Directing the curriculum committee for the college," "Constantly having to act as a leader," and "Outcomes Assessment." Similar dislikes were described as "Other duties as assigned," "Enforcing academic standards," "Class scheduling," "Recruiting," "Very seldom serve on college committees unless chair," "Preparing for accreditation review," "Troubleshooting," and "Dealing with legal issues."

Regarding arbitrating conflicts and handling personnel issues, many respondents expressed distaste for "Petty bickering over minor issues," "Handling grievances and disputes," "Dealing with personnel issues," "Dealing with negative personnel situations," "Working with sexual harassment issues (although necessary and important)," ""Irresponsible people," "Working with thoughtless individuals with their own agendas," "Staff problems," "Making personnel decisions," "Supervising personnel," "Personnel Evaluations," "Doing staff performance reviews," "Faculty/staff conflict resolutions," and "Dealing with complaints (also my job!)." Similar "downsides" included "Staff management," "Too much day-to-day involvement in personnel conflicts," "Dealing with student-faculty conflicts," "Being excluded from personnel decisions," ""Being responsible

for managing other people," "Arbitration in student/faculty disputes," "Too much personnel/human resource duties/problems," "Supervising/managing support staff interpersonal conflicts," and "Dealing with unreasonable/crazy people."

Several respondents resented that they have less flexibility over their time as an administrator compared to when they were faculty. They responded, "Being disliked or criticized by colleagues because of my administrative role," "Difficulty adjusting to new schedule - faculty role is very different than administrative role," "Administrative world lacks camaraderie or social feeling or department life," "Lack of the flexibility I had as a faculty member," "Having a 9 to 5 schedule," "An outsider in both camps (student affairs and academics)," "Having to keep 12 month hours - loss of freedom," and "Difficult transition from 'just a faculty member'."

Communication channels for handling priorities were another problem area; for example, one respondent regretted "Lack of communication with colleagues in similar/adjunct positions - I should be called on to share what I know about issues even if not in direct area of responsibility," "Being shocked to learn critical information has been withheld from you," and "Being the focal point for all requests going out of the college and coming into the college. It is assumed the Dean's too busy to handle things so everything funnels through the associate dean." Other respondents phrased their problems as "Lack of adhering to chain of command by superiors," especially when the lack of information causes "crisis management." Respondents included problems such as these: "Times when unplanned events become barriers to meeting important goals"; "Must field and respond to messages on a wide range of stuff I don't know about, or don't care about - or both"; "Overwhelming sense of always being in a reactive mode rather than proactive"; and "Trying not to lose track of all current projects but to follow through on and accomplish each."

Some respondents mentioned problematic perceptions by others about their position or role. For example, respondents disliked "being caught in the middle," "Often feel caught

being dean and faculty," "An outsider in both camps (student affairs and academics)," "Lack of appreciation by faculty for what I do," "Others' perception of job as mostly clerical." Other dissatisfactions included "Little recognition for achievements," "Have to wear too many hats (teacher, administrator, financial, etc.)," "Being blamed for stuff not my fault," and "Lack of specific feedback and reward for performance," "Results of efforts not directly measurable," "Us-them mentality," and "Increasing emphasis on 'customer service' as opposed to academic integrity."

Many respondents stated additional things they did not like, "The non-stop but sedentary lifestyle," "Slack periods when I become bored," "The number of questionnaires that I receive," "Fact there is no "down time," "Time to do your own thing," "Lack of discretionary time," "Little room for advancement," "No vacations," "Rather have summer off," "No clear future," and "Work too many weekends." On the other hand, several respondents wrote positive comments about their position; for example, "None, just too much to do", "I like it all," "I have no dislikes regarding it," "Too soon to delineate these - right now I'm enjoying it!," "Have not found any yet," and "I can't think of anything I dislike ... I have 'best job on campus'!"

Regarding paperwork and bureaucracy, most respondents bemoaned the amount and time-consuming nature of administration, e.g., meeting deadlines, preparing reports, completing paperwork. Several respondents reported the following problems, "Must decipher administrative prose," "Stultifying bureaucracy," "Dealing with bureaucracy of central administration," and "Frequent overemphasis on bureaucracy and image manipulation." Other respondents noted "Complexity of university rules and regulations," "Having to take responsibility for university administration errors," "Out of touch upper level administrators," "A central administration and state bureaucracy that stifle change and growth," and "Details can take over."

Respondents stated for the category, decision-making, policy-making, and problem-solving, that saying "no" was difficult, especially to supporting projects and

innovative ideas from faculty. Other respondents mentioned that effecting change was hard, as were bringing about change in policy, adjusting to limitations in strategic planning, and dealing with lack of planning time, vague policies, and politics. Referring to effecting change, one respondent blamed "Not enough ability to implement changes in a 'state run' system." Regarding policy, one respondent wrote "Arbitrary application of deadlines, policies across programs." Another respondent mentioned that "Sudden changes in policy generated from Provost's office" caused difficulties. Some respondents wrote about limitations in decision-making; for example, "No input into school strategy," "Being left out of the loop on some decisions," "Having decisions I've made either ignored or overturned at other levels", and "No ultimate decisionmaking power; position too narrowly defined." A few respondents mentioned having to support decisions with which they did not agree; for example, "Being in position of administering action with which I disagree."

Regarding Students, the respondents' difficulties included comments about dealing with student complaints; parents, lack of accountability by students, administrative matters, (e.g., late drops, missed deadlines, cheating, student suspension); arbitrating grievances between faculty and students; and working with students.

Respondents' concerns regarding Fiscal resources mostly dealt with budgetary constraints, e.g., limited budgets, responsibility for budgets; and inadequate resources for staffing. About budgetary matters, several respondents struggled with "The lack of budget flexibility within the university system," "Having insufficient budget to satisfy College needs," "Writing so many justifications of state funding," "Budget reductions," and "Managing a budget." A question about staffing resources evoked the following respondents' comments "Working in environment with poorly paid staff, high turnover," "Dealing with less than adequate university support units," "Too little control over key resources (e.g., staff salaries, reward systems)," and "Managing all tasks with minimal clerical assistance." A few respondents made comments about salary; for example, they

asserted a "Discrepancy in salary if not a tenured faculty first" and noted that "Pay is not equal to amount of time spent in position."

The other categories listed in Table 31 included comments regarding Research and Teaching, some of which focused on missing or having a lack of time for teaching, as well as for research and writing. One respondent regretted "Isolation - at times I don't interact enough with students and faculty." Another respondent struggled with "Balancing teaching and administrative responsibilities -- one must suffer, [I] decided not to teach." One respondent commented on the difficulty of "Balancing research and administrative responsibilities. Research will always be important, [I] must find time to complete projects." A third respondent wrote, "It is not really a dislike, but I have reconfirmed the fact that I am a 'trenches' man. I am returning to my department to continue teaching, research and service as undergraduate coordinator until my retirement next year. (I intend to continue to teach and be involved in research after I retire)."

Regarding the category Working with dean and other administrators, most comments dealt with the relationship and communication links of the dean. Comments included dealing with difficult deans and department chairs; for example, "Dealing with chairs who perceive dean's office as adversary," "Sometimes not informed of what Dean and others are doing," and "Not having a Dean who will overturn decisions of department heads." Other respondents commented "With changes in Deans, the role has less autonomy, responsibility and authority. Reduced to tasks and projects," and "Dean's provost's, [and] chancellor's priorities often become mine." One respondent mentioned "Not liking to represent the dean at meetings." A few others commented about relationships with the dean's staff, for example, "Arbitrating interpersonal conflicts among staff."

Respondents focused on working relationships with Faculty. Some comments noted working with disgruntled and difficult faculty. For example, one respondent disliked "Interactions with 'deadbeat' faculty who are excessively negative about their jobs." Another respondent criticized "Faculty who complain without participating in college

activities and governance." Specifically regarding working relationships, respondents spoke about a lack of feedback from faculty and lowering of academic standards for students. Other problems included "Having to deal with faculty who have huge egos and who expect to be treated like royalty," and "Faculty who waste my time over trivial matters." A few respondents remarked about the responsibility for denial of tenure during the promotion and tenure process.

Respondents mentioned several negative descriptors in regard to meetings they have to attend: unproductive, senseless, too numerous, overlapping, and too lengthy. Several respondents mentioned only "meetings" as what they did not like about their job. One respondent resented "Wasting a lot of time in meetings to 'make decisions' that are ignored."

Only one respondent mentioned technology, "Up until recently I did not have budget for technology, my primary responsibility."

Hypothesis Testing Procedure - Chi-Square Statistics

Chi-square analysis was used to examine differences between whether associate and assistant dean positions were seen as line or staff. Frequency data were generated from survey questions 14, 15, 16, 47, 48, 49, 50, and 51. According to Polit and Hungler (1995), "The chi-square statistic is used when we have categories of data and hypotheses concerning the proportions of cases that fall into the various categories" (p. 419). Chi-square statistics are appropriate because they are "used to test the significance of group differences when data are reported as frequencies or percentages of a total or as nominal scales" (Hittleman & Simon, 1992, p. 194).

Null Hypothesis 1

H_o1: There is no significant relationship between type of position and whether it is perceived that deans discern their positions as line or staff.

TABLE 32

CHI-SQUARE ANALYSIS: PERCEPTIONS BY ASSOCIATE AND ASSISTANT DEANS ON WHETHER THEY BELIEVE DEANS PERCEIVE THEIR POSITIONS ARE LINE OR STAFF

Answer	Associate Dean		Assistant Dean	
	n	%	n	%
Line	132	74.2	37	62.7
Staff	46	25.8	22	37.3
Total	178	100.0	59	100.0

$x^2 = 2.837$, df = 1, p = .092

As shown in Table 32, 25.8% of the associate deans indicated that deans perceived their positions to be staff postions as opposed to 37.3% of the assistant deans. This was not a statistically significant relationship. The null hypothesis was retained.

Null Hypothesis 2

H_o2: There is no significant relationship between type of position and whether it is perceived that faculty discern their positions as line or staff.

TABLE 33

CHI-SQUARE ANALYSIS: PERCEPTIONS BY ASSOCIATE AND ASSISTANT DEANS ON WHETHER THEY BELIEVE FACULTY PERCEIVE THEIR POSITIONS ARE LINE OR STAFF

Answer	Associate Dean n	Associate Dean %	Assistant Dean n	Assistant Dean %
Line	92	48.4	19	31.7
Staff	25	13.2	19	31.7
Both	59	31.1	22	36.7
I don't know	14	7.4	0	0.0
Total	190	100.0	60	100.0

$x^2 = 16.623$, df = 3, p = .001

As shown in Table 33, 31.1% of the associate deans felt that faculty perceived their positions as both line and staff, as opposed to 36.7% of the assistant deans. This was a statistically significant relationship. The null hypothesis was rejected.

Null Hypothesis 3

$H_0 3$: There is no significant relationship between type of position and whether it is perceived that assistant and associate deans discern their positions as line or staff.

At first, in Table 34, including the category, "I don't know," failed the assumption of chi-square. By eliminating that category, the other categories were more effectively examined.

TABLE 34

CHI-SQUARE ANALYSIS: PERCEPTIONS BY ASSISTANT AND ASSOCIATE DEANS ON WHETHER THEY BELIEVE THEIR POSITIONS ARE LINE OR STAFF, FIRST ANALYSIS

Answer	Associate Dean n	Associate Dean %	Assistant Dean n	Assistant Dean %
Line	98	51.6	18	30.0
Staff	28	14.7	19	31.7
Both	63	33.2	22	36.7
I don't know	1	.5	1	1.7
Total	190	100.0	60	100.0

As shown in Table 35, 33.3% of the associate deans felt that faculty perceived their positions as both line and staff, as opposed to 37.3% of the assistant deans. This was a statistically significant relationship. The null hypothesis was rejected.

TABLE 35

CHI-SQUARE ANALYSIS: PERCEPTIONS BY ASSISTANT AND ASSOCIATE DEANS ON WHETHER THEY BELIEVE THEIR POSITIONS ARE LINE OR STAFF, SECOND ANALYSIS

Answer	Associate Dean n	Associate Dean %	Assistant Dean n	Assistant Dean %
Line	98	51.9	18	30.5
Staff	28	14.8	19	32.2
Both	63	33.3	22	37.3
Total	189	100.0	59	100.0

$x^2 = 12.435$, df = 2, p = .003

Null Hypothesis 4

H_o4: There is no significant relationship between assistant and associate deans on whether they would recommend changes for their position.

As shown in Table 36, 60.1% of the associate deans and 54.4% of the assistant deans would not recommend changes in their positions. This was not a statistically significant relationship. The null hypothesis was retained.

TABLE 36

ASSOCIATE AND ASSISTANT DEANS'

RECOMMEND CHANGES IN THEIR POSITIONS

Recommend Changes	Associate Dean n	Associate Dean %	Assistant Dean n	Assistant Dean %
Yes	65	39.9	26	45.6
No	98	60.1	31	54.4
Total	163	100.0	57	100.0

$x^2 = .573$, df = 1, p = .449

Some respondents provided written comments about whether they would recommend changes in their positions. Several respondents stated that they were new to their positions; and positions were being defined by the individual and dean. For example, one respondent stated "I am Associate Dean for research and graduate studies. This position was created just 1 year ago. It is still being defined. I am getting more responsibility and authority as we go."

Comments also included the need for higher salaries, bigger budgets, issues regarding teaching and research requirements, and more secretarial help and professional staff support. Several respondents mentioned the need for clearer definition of job duties, including authority, responsibility, and accountability; for example, "Clearer division of labor with other associate deans so that appointment of department chairs and hiring effort that involve 'loan lines' would go through one channel," "Areas of responsibility need clearer definition," and "More clearly define line/staff position." Other suggestions included "Move from staff to line relationship between Dean and Faculty," "As it currently exists, the position carries little meaningful responsibility. They should elevate the position to one

that carries more true administrative responsibilities and far fewer clerical and fetch-it jobs," "More authority for responsibility, clearer job delineation with other assistant deans." Still other comments recommend "That the position be divided so that Assistant Dean positions retained more of academic responsibilities," "Greater structure to position by formal division of authority," "More true decision making ability. Often I am included in the decision making but always I must defer to decisions of those higher up" and "Tasks need to be more focused. My role is more a 'do all tasks'."

Some individuals commented about interactions with their deans; for example, "I'd like to be more involved with the Dean. See exactly what he does on a regular basis. My title is Assistant Dean of 'special projects.' We are defining this new position as time goes on. I'd like a more complete (fuller) understanding of the Dean's office." Another respondent stated, "Greater autonomy from the Dean would facilitate some aspects of the job. This is not a problem inherent in the position, but rather reflects the management style of this particular Dean." A third individual wrote, "When our new dean assumed his position two years ago, he restructured the office and went from one associate dean to two associate deans - one for Humanities and one for Sciences and an assistant dean for student administrative problems. The associate deans and I have sort of created/grown into our positions. Sometimes we are too busy and sometimes the Dean needs to delegate more to us." A fourth respondent stated, "We should function more as a team, with more 'team' decision making - not as autocratic." A fifth person suggested, "Improve lines of communications and of authority among department heads and with Dean. Sometimes, despite good intentions, previously agreed on lines of communication and areas of authority are not followed." One respondent sought interaction with the dean to help with future career progression, by stating "More involvement in College issues that would better prepare me for a dean's role elsewhere. For example, involvement in building the college's budget and understanding why allocations are made would give me experience in setting fiscal priorities. Although I have knowledge of the overall budget, I do not participate in

budget development beyond salaries and equipment and staff salaries for the units I oversee."

Many respondents reported satisfaction with their positions; for example, "After 9 years, my tasks are comfortable, but challenging, and I have flexibility given substantial external funding to influence many aspects of the college," "I love my job," and "It's perfect." On the other hand, some individuals stated "reality checks" were needed regarding their positions. For example, respondents made the following comments: "Need more help and more realistic understanding of how much time the job takes - this is not a 12-15 hours a week position," "My job needs to be divided among two people. My responsibilities are too numerous for one person to do a good job," and "My position slowly, but steadily, became larger and more stressful over the last five years. There needs to be a more regular assessment of administrative loads and responsibilities. Sometimes the 'reality' of the job needs to be reviewed and perhaps changed." Finally, one respondent said that his or her position should be eliminated.

Null Hypothesis 5

H_o5: There is no significant relationship between assistant and associate deans on whether they perceive their positions as a stepping stone to a deanship at their present institution.

As shown in Table 37, 78.5% of the associate deans and 90.0% of the assistant deans did not indicate that they perceived their position as a stepping stone to a deanship at their present institution. This was a statistically significant relationship. The null hypothesis was rejected.

TABLE 37

CHI-SQUARE ANALYSIS: ASSISTANT AND ASSOCIATE DEANS' PERCEPTIONS OF THEIR POSITION AS A STEPPING STONE TO DEANSHIPS AT THEIR PRESENT INSTITUTIONS

Answer	Associate Dean n	Associate Dean %	Assistant Dean n	Assistant Dean %
Yes	40	21.5	6	10.0
No	146	78.5	54	90.0
Total	186	100.0	60	100.0

$x^2 = 3.950$, df = 1, p = .047

Null Hypothesis 6

H_o6: There is no significant relationship between assistant and associate deans on whether they perceive their positions as a stepping stone to a deanship at another institution.

As shown in Table 38, 44.3% of the associate deans and 66.7% of the assistant deans did not perceive their position as a stepping stone to a deanship at another institution. This was a statistically significant relationship. The null hypothesis was rejected.

TABLE 38

CHI-SQUARE ANALYSIS: ASSISTANT AND ASSOCIATE DEANS' PERCEPTIONS OF THEIR POSITION AS A STEPPING STONE TO DEANSHIP AT ANOTHER INSTITUTION

Answer	Associate Dean n	Associate Dean %	Assistant Dean n	Assistant Dean %
Yes	103	55.7	20	33.3
No	82	44.3	40	66.7
Total	185	100.0	60	100.0

$x^2 = 9.047$, df = 1, p = .003

Null Hypothesis 7

H_O7: There is no significant relationship between assistant and associate deans on whether being an assistant or associate dean has affected their interest in becoming a dean at their present institution.

As shown in Table 39, 59.0% of the associate deans and 68.3% of the assistant deans said their interest has not been affected in becoming a dean at their present institution. This was not a statistically significant relationship. The null hypothesis was retained.

TABLE 39

CHI-SQUARE ANALYSIS: ASSISTANT AND ASSOCIATE DEANS' PERCEPTIONS OF THEIR INTEREST IN BECOMING A DEAN AT THEIR PRESENT INSTITUTION

Answer	Associate Dean n	Associate Dean %	Assistant Dean n	Assistant Dean %
Yes	77	41.0	19	31.7
No	111	59.0	41	68.3
Total	188	100.0	60	100.0

$x^2 = 1.655$, df = 1, p = .198

Null Hypothesis 8

H_o8: There is no significant relationship between assistant and associate deans on whether being an assistant or associate dean has affected their interest in becoming a dean at another institution.

As shown in Table 40, 50.8% of the associate deans and 71.2% of the assistant deans said their interest in becoming a dean at another institution has not been affected. This was a statistically significant relationship. The null hypothesis was rejected.

TABLE 40

CHI-SQUARE ANALYSIS: ASSISTANT AND ASSOCIATE DEANS PERCEPTIONS OF THEIR INTEREST IN BECOMING A DEAN AT ANOTHER INSTITUTION

Answer	Associate Dean n	Associate Dean %	Assistant Dean n	Assistant Dean %
Yes	93	49.2	17	28.8
No	96	50.8	42	71.2
Total	189	100.0	59	100.0

$x^2 = 7.576$, df = 1, p = .006

Hypotheses Testing Procedure - Factor Analysis

Factor analysis was completed on the items in Section IV of the survey. Six composites were originally created: Curriculum, Administrative Leadership and Relationships, Budget, Teaching and Research, Interdepartmental Activities, and Student Issues/Clerical Work. The five items that had high loadings on Composite Scale One, Curriculum, were Items 26, 27, 28, 29, and 38. The five items that had high loadings on Composite Scale Two, Administrative Leadership and Relationships, were Items 24, 30, 36, 35, and 43. The five items that had high loadings on Composite Scale Three, Budget, were Items 32, 33, and 34. The two items that had high loadings on Composite Scale Four, Teaching and Research, were Items 41 and 42. The two items that had high loadings on Composite Scale Five, Interdepartmental Activities, were Items 39 and 40. The two items that had high loadings on Composite Scale Six, Student Issues, were Items 25 and 44.

The five items for Composite Scales One, Two, and Three were then evaluated for reliability using the theta reliability coefficient. According to Carmines and Zeller (1979), "Theta lends itself to many different interpretations but it is understood most simply as being a special case of Cronbach's alpha. Specifically, theta is the alpha coefficient for a scale in which the weighting vector has been chosen so as to make alpha a maximum" (p. 61). The loadings for each composite were summed and evaluated for reliability using the theta reliability coefficient. For Composite Scale One, the theta reliability coefficient was .86. For Composite Scale Two, the theta reliability coefficient was .77. For Composite Scale Three, the theta reliability coefficient was .38. For Composite Scale Four, the theta reliability coefficient was .37. For Composite Scale Five, the Theta reliability coefficient was .12. For Composite Scale Six, the theta reliability coefficient was .01. These initial factor loadings were used to determine the items that were most representative of the factor dimensions.

Once the items had been identified through factor analysis, they were treated as simple unidimensional summated rating scales for each dimension. Scores on each of the items with significant loadings were summed to yield a factor scale. The reliability of each of these unidimensional scales was then assessed with Cronbach's alpha. For this study, the loadings for Composite Scales One, Two, and Three were further analyzed: Curriculum, Administrative Leadership and Relationships, and Budget. The five items that had high loadings on Composite Scale One, Curriculum, based on 225 cases were Items 26, 27, 28, 29, and 38. These five items were evaluated for reliability using the Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient. The alpha coefficient for these items was .8783. The five items that had high loadings on Composite Scale Two, Administrative Leadership and Relationships, based on 232 cases, were Items 24, 30, 35, 36, and 43. These five items were evaluated for reliability using the Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient. The alpha coefficient for these items was .7946. The five items that had high loadings on Composite Scale Three, Budget, based on 229 cases, were Items 32, 33, and 34. These three items

were evaluated for reliability using the Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient. The alpha coefficient for these items was .9074.

The Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient for Composite Scales One, Two, and Three was acceptable. The items in each set were then summed to create three new composite scores: Curriculum is the sum of the Likert Scale responses to Items 26, 27, 28, 29, and 38. The Curriculum composite score has a potential range of 5 to 25. The Administrative Leadership and Relationships is the sum of the Likert Scale responses to Items 24, 30, 36, 35, and 43. The Administrative Leadership and Relationships composite score has a potential range of 5 to 25. Budget is the sum of the Likert Scale responses to Items 32, 33, and 34. The Budget composite score has a potential range of 5 to 25. These three composite scores were then treated as dependent variables in the analyses that follow.

Only Composite Scales One and Three met the requirement for homogeneity of variance. A three-way ANOVA was used to test the hypotheses. The three-way ANOVA included these independent variables: gender, dean, and college/school. The dependent variables were the new variables based upon the summed scores from Composites One and Three. Composite Two, Leadership, did not meet the assumption for homogeneity of variance. Leadership scores were transformed using the log, square root, and reciprocal. Tests of homogeneity of variance for these three transformed variables showed that the transformations did not correct the problem of unequal variances. Therefore, to analyze Composite Two, Leadership, two statistical analyses were completed. The first statistical analysis was a three-way ANOVA. The second statistical analysis was conducted using a one-way ANOVA and two t-tests. The one-way ANOVA was completed for leadership and the nominal-level variable, college. Separate t-tests were conducted for leadership and the nominal-level variables, gender and dean. Tests for homogeneity of variances were conducted for the three-way ANOVA, the one-way ANOVA, and the two t-tests.

Composite 1: Curriculum

The following are descriptive data for Composite 1, Curriculum. Tables 41 and 42 present descriptive data by level of dean and by gender for the colleges they represent.

TABLE 41

DESCRIPTIVE DATA FOR MALE ASSOCIATE AND ASSISTANT DEANS FOR COMPOSITE ONE, CURRICULUM

College	Male Associate Deans			Male Assistant Deans		
	Mean	Std. Dev.	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	N
Education	15.393	4.818	28	14.800	6.261	5
Business	19.541	4.947	37	17.818	6.369	11
Arts and Sciences	18.164	5.091	55	18.800	3.194	5

TABLE 42

DESCRIPTIVE DATA FOR FEMALE ASSOCIATE AND ASSISTANT DEANS FOR COMPOSITE ONE, CURRICULUM

College	Female Associate Deans			Female Assistant Deans		
	Mean	Std. Dev.	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	N
Education	18.882	5.453	17	15.111	7.026	9
Business	19.750	2.915	8	12.636	5.938	11
Arts and Sciences	19.688	3.440	32	13.286	5.992	7

In preliminary analysis, the test for homogeneity of variance was met. The p value is .139. The following hypotheses were tested using a three-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for Composite 1, Curriculum.

H_o9: For Curriculum, there is no significant difference on the main effects for gender.

H_o10: For Curriculum, there is no significant difference on the main effects for dean.

H_o11: For Curriculum, there is no significant difference on the main effects for college.

H_o12: For Curriculum, there is no significant difference on two-way interaction for gender by dean.

H_o13: For Curriculum, there is no significant difference on two-way interaction for gender by college.

H_o14: For Curriculum, there is no significant difference on two-way interaction for dean by college.

H_o15: For Curriculum, there is no significant difference on three-way interaction for gender by dean by college.

Table 43 presents the results of the three-way ANOVA for Composite 1, Curriculum.

TABLE 43

THREE-WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE ON COMPOSITE 1, CURRICULUM

Item	SS	df	MS	F	p
Gender	23.55	1	23.55	.93	.335
Dean	317.81	1	317.81	12.59	.0005
College	54.47	2	27.23	1.08	.342
Gender x Dean	215.24	1	215.24	8.53	.004
Gender x College	119.50	2	59.75	2.37	.096
Dean x College	28.96	2	14.48	.57	.564
Gender x Dean x College	18.79	2	9.39	.37	.690
Error	5375.63	213	25.24		

For null hypothesis $H_0$9, the p value was .335, which was more than the alpha level of .05. The null hypothesis was retained. Data indicated no significant difference on the main effects by gender.

For null hypothesis $H_0$10, the p value was .0005, which was less than the alpha level of .05. The null hypothesis was rejected. The means for level of dean and gender were compared. For associate deans, the mean for males was 17.699 (120 cases); the mean for females was 19.440 (57 cases). For assistant deans, the mean for males was 17.139 (21 cases); the mean for females was 13.678 (27 cases). Regarding gender, for males only, the mean for associate deans was 17.699 (120 cases); the mean for assistant deans was 17.139 (21 cases). For females only, the mean for associate deans was 19.440 (57 cases); the mean for assistant deans was 13.678 (27 cases). Data indicated a significant difference on the main effects for level of dean.

For null hypothesis H_o11, the p value was .342, which was more than the alpha level of .05. The null hypothesis was retained. Data indicate no significant difference on the main effects by college.

For null hypothesis H_o12, the p value was .004, which was less than the alpha level of .05. The null hypothesis was rejected. Tests for simple main effects were conducted to determine the interaction on the two-way interaction of gender by dean. From a test of simple main effects by gender for associate deans only, the mean for males was 17.699 based on 120 cases and the mean for females was 19.440 based on 57 cases.

Table 44 shows data by gender for associate deans only.

TABLE 44

TEST OF SIMPLE MAIN EFFECTS BY GENDER FOR ASSOCIATE DEANS ONLY

Item	SS	df	MS	F	p
Gender	117.133	1	117.133	4.641	.032
Error	5376.120	213	25.240		

The p value was .032, which was less than the alpha level of .05. The null hypothesis was rejected. For associate deans only, there was no significant difference between males and females on Composite 1, Curriculum. The descriptive statistics show that female associate deans had a higher mean on curriculum than do male associate deans.

From a test of simple main effects by gender for assistant deans, the mean for males was 17.139 based on 21 cases, and the mean for females was 13.678 based on 27 cases.

Table 45 gives data by gender for assistant deans only.

TABLE 45

TEST OF SIMPLE MAIN EFFECTS OF GENDER FOR ASSISTANT DEANS ONLY

Item	SS	df	MS	F	p
Gender	141.496	1	141.496	5.606	.019
Error	5376.120	213	25.240		

The p value was .019, which was less than the alpha level of .05. The null hypothesis was rejected. For assistant deans only, there was no significant difference between males and females on Composite 1, Curriculum. The descriptive statistics showed that among assistant deans, males had a higher mean on curriculum than females.

From a test of simple main effects of dean for males, the mean for associate dean was 17.699 based on 120 cases. The mean for assistant dean was 17.139 based on 21 cases.

Table 46 shows data of the level of dean for males only.

TABLE 46

TEST OF SIMPLE MAIN EFFECTS OF DEAN FOR MALES ONLY

Item	SS	df	MS	F	p
Dean	5.605	1	5.605	.222	.638
Error	5376.120	213	25.240		

The p value was .638, was greater than the alpha level of .05. The null hypothesis was retained. For males only, there was no significant difference between the means of associate deans and assistant deans on Composite 1, Curriculum.

From a test of simple main effect of dean for females, the mean for associate dean was 19.440 based on 57 cases, and the mean for assistant dean was 13.678 based on 27 cases.

Table 47 presents data of the level of dean for females only.

TABLE 47

TEST OF SIMPLE MAIN EFFECTS OF DEAN FOR FEMALES ONLY

Item	SS	df	MS	F	p
Dean	608.283	1	608.283	24.100	.0005
Error	5376.120	213	25.240		

The p value was .0005 was less than the alpha level of .05. The null hypothesis was rejected. For females only, the mean of the associate deans was equal to the mean of assistant deans on Composite 1, Curriculum. The descriptive statistics showed that among females, associate deans had a higher mean on curriculum than do assistant deans.

For null hypothesis H_o13, the p value was .096, which was more than the alpha level of .05. The null hypothesis was retained. Data indicated no significant differences on the two-way interaction of gender by college.

For null hypothesis H_o14, the p value was .564, which was more than the alpha level of .05. The null hypothesis was retained. Data indicated no significant differences on two-way interaction for dean by college.

For null hypothesis H_o15, the p value was .690, which was more than the alpha level of .05. The null hypothesis was retained. Data indicated no significant difference on three-way interaction for gender by dean by college.

Composite 2: Administrative Leadership and Relationships- First Statistical Analysis

The following are descriptive data for Composite 2, Leadership. Tables 48 and 49 present Associate and Assistant Dean data by gender for the colleges they represent.

In preliminary analysis, the test for homogeneity of variance was not met. The following hypotheses were tested using a three-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for Composite 2, Administrative Leadership and Relationships.

H_o16: For Administrative Leadership and Relationships, there is no significant difference on the main effects for gender.

H_o17: For Administrative Leadership and Relationships, there is no significant difference on the main effects for dean.

H_o18: For Administrative Leadership and Relationships, there is no significant difference on the main effects for college.

H_o19: For Administrative Leadership and Relationships, there is no significant difference on two-way interaction for gender by dean.

H_o20: For Administrative Leadership and Relationships, there is no significant difference on two-way interaction for gender by college.

H_o21: For Administrative Leadership and Relationships, there is no significant difference on two-way interaction for dean by college.

H_o22: For Administrative Leadership and Relationships, there is no significant difference on three-way interaction for gender by dean by college.

TABLE 48

DESCRIPTVE DATA FOR MALE ASSOCIATE AND ASSISTANT DEANS FOR COMPOSITE TWO, ADMINISTRATIVE LEADERSHIP AND RELATIONSHIPS

College	Male Associate Deans			Male Assistant Deans		
	Mean	Std. Dev.	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	N
Education	22.448	2.245	29	20.000	4.847	5
Business	21.8857	3.215	35	20.166	3.809	12
Arts and Sciences	21.736	3.528	57	20.000	2.097	6

TABLE 49

DESCRIPTIVE DATA FOR MALE ASSOCIATE AND ASSISTANT DEANS FOR COMPOSITE TWO, ADMINISTRATIVE LEADERSHIP AND RELATIONSHIPS

College	Female Associate Deans			Female Assistant Deans		
	Mean	Std. Dev.	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	N
Education	23.111	2.026	18	21.222	6.260	9
Business	22.714	2.751	7	19.909	4.109	11
Arts and Sciences	22.437	3.564	32	20.272	3.849	11

Table 50 presents the results of the three-way ANOVA for Composite 2, Leadership.

TABLE 50

THREE-WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE ON COMPOSITE TWO, ADMINISTRATIVE LEADERSHIP AND RELATIONSHIPS

Item	SS	df	MS	F	p
Gender	11.167	1	11.167	.943	.333
Dean	154.668	1	154.668	13.061	.0005
College	8.881	2	4.441	.375	.688
Gender x Dean	.865	1	.865	.073	.787
Gender x College	2.398	2	1.199	.101	.904
Dean x College	.631	2	.315	.027	.974
Gender x Dean x College	3.647	2	1.824	.154	.857
Error	2605.162	220	11.842		

For null hypothesis H_o16, the p value was .333 which was more than the alpha level of .05. The null hypothesis was retained. Data indicated no significant difference on the main effects for gender.

For null hypothesis H_o17, the p value was .0005 which was less than the alpha level of .05. The null hypothesis was rejected. The means for associate deans and assistant deans were compared. For associate deans, the mean was 22.389 (178 cases). For assistant deans, the mean was 20.261 (54 cases). No test of simple main effects was conducted because the interaction was not significant. Data indicated that associate deans

were more involved with duties in Composite Two, Administrative Leadership.and Relationships, than assistant deans.

For null hypothesis H_o18, the p value was .668, which was more than the alpha level of .05. The null hypothesis was retained. Data indicated no significant difference on the main effects for college.

For null hypothesis H_o19, the p value was .787, which was more than the alpha level of .05. The null hypothesis was retained. Data indicated no significant difference on the main effects for gender by dean.

For null hypothesis H_o20, the p value was .904, which was more than the alpha level of .05. The null hypothesis was retained. Data indicated no significant difference on the main effects for gender by college.

For null hypothesis H_o21, the p value was .974, which was more than the alpha level of .05. The null hypothesis was retained. Data indicated no significant difference on the main effects for dean by college.

For null hypothesis H_o22, the p value was .857, which was more than the alpha level of .05. The null hypothesis was retained. Data indicated no significant difference on the main effects for gender by dean by college.

Composite 2: Administrative Leadership and Relationships - Second Statistical Analysis

Because the homogeneity of variance was not met using a three-way ANOVA, a second statistical analysis was performed. For the second statistical analysis, a one-way ANOVA was conducted for leadership and college. t-tests were conducted for leadership and gender, and leadership and level of dean. The following are descriptive data for Composite 2, Academic Leadership and Relationships.

Table 51 shows the following descriptive statistics for leadership and college.

TABLE 51

DESCRIPTIVE DATA FOR COLLEGE/SCHOOL FOR COMPOSITE TWO, ADMINISTRATIVE LEADERSHIP AND RELATIONSHIPS

College / School	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Error	Min.	Max
Education	61	22.262	3.336	.4272	5.00	25.00
Business	65	21.323	3.509	.4353	10.00	25.00
Arts and Sciences	106	21.698	3.543	.3442	6.00	25.00

In preliminary analysis, the test for homogeneity of variance was met. The p value was .666. The following hypothesis was tested using a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for Composite 2, Administrative Leadership and Relationships.

H_o23: For Administrative Leadership and Relationships, there is no statistical significance between colleges and leadership.

Table 52 presents the one-way ANOVA for leadership and college/school.

TABLE 52

ONE-WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR LEADERSHIP AND COLLEGE/SCHOOL FOR COMPOSITE TWO, ADMINISTRATIVE LEADERSHIP AND RELATIONSHIPS

Item	SS	df	MS	F	p
College / School	28.124	2	14.062	1.161	.315
Error	2774.358	229	12.115		

For null hypothesis 23, the p value of .315 was greater than the alpha level of .05. The null hypothesis was retained. Data indicated no significant differences between colleges/schools on leadership.

t-Tests. The following hypotheses were tested using t-tests for Composite 2, Administrative Leadership and Relationships and Gender. In preliminary analysis, the test for homogeneity of variance was met. The p value is .464.

H_o24: For Administrative Leadership and Relationships, there is no statistical relationship between gender and leadership.

Table 53 shows the group statistics for leadership and gender.

TABLE 53

t-TEST FOR LEADERSHIP AND GENDER FOR COMPOSITE TWO, ADMINISTRATIVE LEADERSHIP AND RELATIONSHIPS

Item	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Error Mean
Male	144	21.652	3.284	.2737
Female	88	21.886	3.800	.4052

For null hypothesis 24, the p value was .621, which is more than the alpha level of .05. The null hypothesis was retained. Data indicated no significant differences by gender on leadership.

A t-test was used for the following hypothesis for Composite 2, Administrative Leadership and Relationships and Level of Dean. In preliminary analysis, the test for homogeneity of variance was not met. The p value was .015.

H_O25: For Administrative Leadership and Relationships, there is no statistical relationship between level of dean and leadership.

Table 54 gives the group statistics for leadership and dean.

TABLE 54

t-TEST FOR LEADERSHIP AND LEVEL OF DEAN FOR COMPOSITE TWO, ADMINISTRATIVE LEADERSHIP AND RELATIONSHIPS

Item	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Error Mean
Associate Dean	178	22.185	3.130	.2347
Assistant Dean	54	20.277	4.159	.5660

For null hypothesis H_O25, the p value is .003, which is less than the alpha level of .05. The null hypothesis was rejected. Associate deans have more responsibility for duties in this composite than do assistant deans.

The null hypotheses were rejected for level of dean in both statistical analyses (three-way ANOVA and t-test for leadership and dean), for Composite 2, Administrative Leadership and Relationships.

Composite 3: Budget

The following are descriptive data for Composite 3, Budget. In Tables 55 and 56 data for gender are shown.

In preliminary analysis, the test for homogeneity of variance was met. The p value is .093. The following hypotheses were tested using a three-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for Composite 3, Budget.

TABLE 55

DESCRIPTIVE DATA FOR MALE ASSOCIATE AND ASSISTANT DEANS FOR COMPOSITE THREE, BUDGET

College	Male Associate Deans			Male Assistant Deans		
	Mean	Std. Dev.	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	N
Education	10.483	4.740	29	9.200	6.016	5
Business	10.205	3.944	34	6.363	3.384	11
Arts and Sciences	9.913	4.305	58	8.166	3.060	6

TABLE 56

DESCRIPTIVE DATA FOR FEMALE ASSOCIATE AND ASSISTANT DEANS FOR COMPOSITE THREE, BUDGET

College	Female Associate Deans			Female Assistant Deans		
	Mean	Std. Dev.	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	N
Education	9.312	4.269	16	7.250	3.955	8
Business	10.333	4.885	6	9.000	4.959	11
Arts and Sciences	8.571	4.067	35	9.000	4.858	10

$H_0$26: For Budget, there is no significant difference on the main effects for gender.

$H_0$27: For Budget, there is no significant difference on the main effects for dean.

$H_0$28: For Budget, there is no significant difference on the main effects for college.

$H_0$29: For Budget, there is no significant difference on two-way interaction for gender by dean.

$H_0$30: For Budget, there is no significant difference on two-way interaction for gender by college.

$H_0$31: For Budget, there is no significant difference on two-way interaction for dean by college.

$H_0$32: For Budget, there is no significant difference on three-way interaction for gender by dean by college.

Table 57 presents the results of the three-way ANOVA for Composite 3, Budget.

TABLE 57

THREE-WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE ON COMPOSITE THREE, BUDGET

Item	SS	df	MS	F	p
Gender	.195	1	.195	.010	.919
Dean	80.102	1	80.102	4.314	.039
College	.147	2	.073	.004	.996
Gender x Dean	16.660	1	16.660	.897	.345
Gender x College	43.301	2	21.651	1.166	.314
Dean x College	26.671	2	13.336	.718	.489
Gender x Dean x College	18.652	2	9.326	.502	.606
Error	4028.790	217	18.566		

For null hypothesis H_O26, the p value was .919, which was more than the alpha level of .05. The null hypothesis was retained. Data indicated no significant difference on the main effects for gender.

For null hypothesis H_O27, the p value was .039, which was less than the alpha level of .05. The null hypothesis was rejected. The means for associate deans and assistant deans were compared. For associate deans, the mean was 9.802 (178 cases). For assistant deans, the mean was 8.158 (51 cases). No test of simple main effects was conducted because the interaction was not significant. Data indicated that associate deans, more than assistant deans, are involved with duties in Composite Three, Budget.

For null hypothesis H_O28, the p value was .996, which was more than the alpha level of .05. The null hypothesis was retained. Data indicated no significant difference on the main effects for college/school.

For null hypothesis H_O29, the p value was .345, which was more than the alpha level of .05. The null hypothesis was retained. Data indicated no significant difference on the two-way interaction for gender by dean.

For null hypothesis H_O30, the p value was .314, which was more than the alpha level of .05. The null hypothesis was retained. Data indicated no significant difference on the two-way interaction for gender by college.

For null hypothesis H_O31, the p value was .489, which was more than the alpha level of .05. The null hypothesis was retained. Data indicated no significant difference on the two-way interaction for dean by college.

For null hypothesis H_O32, the p value was .606, which was more than the alpha level of .05. The null hypothesis was retained. Data indicated no significant difference on the three-way interaction for gender by dean by college.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The roles and responsibilities of associate and assistant deans vary, based upon the needs of the collegiate unit, the expanded demands of deans, and the university organization (George, 1980). For example, Armiger (1976) asserted that "the emergence of associate and assistant deans, administrative assistants, and fiscal staff has become necessary as the complexity of the collegial enterprise has grown" (p. 165). According to Kindelsperger (1982), the roles of assistant and associate deans "have carried both functional and programming responsibilities, and they might have been staffed with either faculty or non-faculty personnel" (p. 4). Further, Weingartner (1996) stated deans need "dean's helpers who, because conversant with the academic enterprise of the school, are capable of exercising discretionary authority, but who nevertheless remain subordinate to the dean, rather than develop fiefdoms of their own" (p. 39).

Often the positions of associate and assistant deans are considered line positions (George, 1980; Kindelsperger, 1982). Many respondents in George's (1980) study discerned their jobs as line positions. George (1980) further stated that "line *authority* more often is not extended to the more significant line functions, that of budget management and personnel decisions, whereas line *responsibility* is most often vested in expectations for program accountability and personnel evaluation" (p. 59). On the other hand, Applegate and Book (1989) maintained that the title of assistant and associate dean is transparent; no difference exists in responsibility.

Often, associate and assistants deans' dual roles of faculty and administrator resemble the role of player-coach as described by Sullivan (1992). For example, a person interacts with people in a unit as well as with individuals in upper level administration. As with deans, a job description often defines the positions of associate and assistant deans.

Playing the dual roles of faculty and administrator, associate and assistant deans must understand norms and values of two cultures in higher education (Lucas, 1994).

This study tested patterns and relationships by comparing and contrasting the roles of assistant and associate deans in the colleges or schools related to the disciplines of business, education, and arts and sciences within four different classifications of institutions [Research Universities I and II and Doctoral Universities I and II], as described by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching (The Chronicle of Higher Education, 1997). This study included only individuals who held the title of associate or assistant dean in the colleges or schools of arts and sciences, business, and education in SACS institutions. A cover letter and the survey instrument were mailed in June, 1998; a follow-up letter was mailed in July, 1998. Responses were received from June through August, 1998. Since George's (1980) and Kindelsperger's (1982) studies, most studies about assistant and associate deans have pertained only to the discipline in which the researcher was a member. Several studies included responses by deans as well as associate and assistant deans. This study, however, focused only on the perceptions of associate and assistant deans. One set of perceptions of associate and assistant deans included determining whether their positions were line or staff. A second set of perceptions comprised the career progression by associate and assistant deans to a deanship at their own or another institution. This study also compared the effect of gender, level of dean, and college/school for three composite scores, Curriculum, Administrative Leadership and Relationships, and Budget.

Although the literature on associate and assistant deans is limited, two earlier studies (George, 1980; Kindelsperger, 1982) provided a foundation for understanding the complex roles of associate and assistant deans. George (1980) and Kindelsperger (1982), in their literature reviews, examined the role of dean as the groundwork to explore the roles of associate and assistant deans. For this study, the literature review included a review of the roles of deans and the roles of mid-level management in higher education. The literature

review also focused on three themes: 1) The Rationale for the Positions of Assistant and Associate Deans; 2) Gender Differences for Assistant and Associate Deans; and 3) Differences Between the Roles of Assistant and Associate Deans.

Teaching remains a prerequisite and foundation for most administrators (Abramson & Moss, 1977; George, 1977; Hipps, 1982; Lombardo, 1995). A publication record is also deemed necessary (Abramson & Moss). In this study, many of the respondents had teaching experience; several respondents stated they continued to teach even though not required to do so. Terminal degrees in a discipline (George, 1977; Larson, 1994) and tenured faculty status (Kindelsperger) were also vital prerequisites for individuals seeking administrative careers. Because many administrators lack administrative training (Applegate & Book, 1989; Hipps, 1982), Millett (1978) stated that faculty are trained for a discipline, not for administration. Kindelsperger (1982) wrote that "most academic administration in colleges and universities is conducted by faculty and primarily by faculty without extensive administrative preparation or experience. Non-faculty administrators and the widespread use of managerial theory in academic administration are not commonly accepted practices" (p. 21).

Additional skills are necessary for people to be effective administrators, namely, interpersonal and managerial skills (George, 1977) and formal study in finance, management, and budgeting (George & Coudret, 1986). In this study, many associate and assistant deans continued their professional development by identifying areas where they lacked skills and/or knowledge. During the past three years and for future administrative development, many respondents would participate or have participated in conferences and continuing education programs related to higher education administration. Several respondents also indicated that they read or would read books on higher education administration and related topics, e.g., total quality management and fiscal management. Johnsrud and Heck (1994) stated that

> The higher the level of the position in the organization, the more difficult it is to specify the skills and abilities necessary for success. The more responsibility that is required for a position in an organization, the more likely that trust and discretion are important to those striving to fill it. This practice is reflected in higher education in which the criteria for administrative success are often amorphous (p. 27).

The demographics from past studies showed more men than women were associate and assistant deans. In Larson's (1994) study about colleges of nursing, white women made up the majority of associate and assistant deans. For this study, demographic profiles did not reflect ethnic or racial make-up but did reflect gender distribution. In this study, 154 men (61.4%) and 97 women (38.6%) participated. A total of 191 associate deans (76.1%) and 60 assistant deans (23.9%) completed the survey.

Approximately 40 requests for the results of the study were made by those who participated in it. In addition, requests for results of the study came from some deans of the participating higher education institutions.

Conclusions

Thirty-two null hypotheses in this study were tested. The hypotheses are addressed sequentially.

Null Hypotheses 1, 2, and 3 - Chi-square Statistics

H_o1: There is no significant difference between assistant and associate deans on whether they perceive that deans discern their positions as line or staff.

H_o2: There is no significant difference between assistant and associate deans on whether they perceive that faculty discern their positions as line or staff.

H_o3: There is no significant difference between assistant and associate deans on whether they perceive their positions as line or staff.

Null hypotheses one, two, and three were tested using chi-square analysis. Null hypothesis one was retained. Data showed that there was no statistical signficance on whether assistant and associate deans perceived that deans discerned their positions to be line versus staff. Null hypotheses two and three were rejected. For null hypothesis two, data indicated that a higher percentage of assistant deans perceived that faculty discerned their positions as both line or staff than associate deans did. For null hypothesis three, data indicated that more associate deans perceived their positions as line than assistant deans did. The implication that can be drawn is that the associate deans have titles that pertain to specific areas, e.g., academic affairs, research.

Null Hypotheses 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8 - Chi-square Statistics

H_o4: There is no significant difference between assistant and associate deans on whether they would recommend changes for their position.

H_o5: There is no significant difference between assistant and associate deans on whether they perceive their positions as a stepping stone to a deanship at their present institution.

H_o6: There is no significant difference between assistant and associate deans on whether they perceive their positions as a stepping stone to a deanship at another institution.

H_o7: There is no significant difference between assistant and associate deans on whether being an assistant or associate dean has affected their interest in becoming a dean at their present institution.

H_o8: There is no significant difference between assistant and associate deans on whether being an assistant or associate dean has affected their interest in becoming a dean at another institution.

Null hypotheses four, five, six, seven, and eight were tested using chi-square analysis. Null hypotheses four and seven were retained. For null hypothesis four, data

indicated there were no significant differences between associate deans and assistant deans with regard to recommending changes for their positions. For null hypothesis seven, data indicated there were no significant difference between associate deans and assistant deans with regard to their interest in becoming a dean at their present institution.

Null hypotheses five, six, and eight were rejected. For null hypothesis five, both associate and assistant deans perceived that their positions were not a stepping stone to a deanship at their present institution. For null hypothesis six, associate deans perceived their position as a stepping stone to deanship at another institution. On the other hand, assistant deans perceived their positions were not a stepping stone to deanship at another institution. For null hypothesis eight, assistant deans stated that their interest in becoming a dean at another institution had not been affected by being an assistant dean now. Associate deans were almost evenly divided on their interest in becoming deans at other institutions. The implications can be drawn that assistant deans do not generally perceive their positions as stepping stones to deanships at their present or another institution, while associate deans perceive advancement to a deanship as more likely at another institution than at their present institution.

Composite 1: Curriculum, Null Hypotheses 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, and 15 - Factor Analysis and Three-way ANOVA

H_o9: For Curriculum, there is no significant difference on the main effects for gender.

H_o10: For Curriculum, there is no significant difference on the main effects for dean.

H_o11: For Curriculum, there is no significant difference on the main effects for college.

H_o12: For Curriculum, there is no significant difference on two-way interaction for gender by dean.

H_o13: For Curriculum, there is no significant difference on two-way interaction for gender by college.

H_o14: For Curriculum, there is no significant difference on two-way interaction for dean by college.

H_o15: For Curriculum, there is no significant difference on three-way interaction for gender by dean by college.

Null hypotheses 9 through 15 were tested using a three-way ANOVA. In the factor analysis, the independent variables were gender, level of dean, and college/school. The dependent variable was the factor score. The results of the three-way ANOVA showed no statistical significant differences for null hypotheses 9, 11, 13, 14, and 15 for the independent variables: gender, college, gender by college, dean by college, and gender by dean by college.

Null hypothesis 10 was rejected. The means for level of dean and gender were compared. More female associate deans than female assistant deans had responsibilities in Composite #1, Curriculum. Male associate deans and male assistant deans had approximately the same responsibilities in Composite #1, Curriculum.

Null hypothesis 12 was rejected. Tests for simple main effects were conducted to determine the interaction between gender and level of dean. The following null hypotheses for tests of simple main effects were rejected for the two-way interactions: 1) between gender and associate deans, 2) gender and assistant deans, and 3) level of dean and females. The null hypothesis for tests of simple main effects was not rejected for the two-way interaction, level of dean and males. For gender and associate deans, the descriptive statistics showed that female associate deans had a higher mean on curriculum than male associate deans. For gender and assistant deans, the descriptive statistics showed that males had a higher mean on curriculum than females. For level of dean and females, the descriptive statistics showed that associate deans had a higher mean than assistant deans. For level of dean and males, there was no significant difference between associate deans

and assistant deans. The implication that can be drawn indicates that female associate deans had the most responsibility and male associate deans and male assistant deans had approximately the same responsibilities for Composite 1, Curriculum.

Composite 2, Administrative Leadership and Relationships: Null Hypotheses 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21 and 22 - Factor Analysis and Three-way ANOVA

H_o16: For Administrative Leadership and Relationships, there is no significant difference on the main effects for gender.

H_o17: For Administrative Leadership and Relationships, there is no significant difference on the main effects for dean.

H_o18: For Administrative Leadership and Relationships, there is no significant difference on the main effects for college.

H_o19: For Administrative Leadership and Relationships, there is no significant difference on two-way interaction for gender by dean.

H_o20: For Administrative Leadership and Relationships, there is no significant difference on two-way interaction for gender by college.

H_o21: For Administrative Leadership and Relationships, there is no significant difference on two-way interaction for dean by college.

H_o22: For Administrative Leadership and Relationships, there is no significant difference on three-way interaction for gender by dean by college.

Null hypotheses 16 through 22 were tested using a three-way ANOVA. In the factor analysis, the independent variables were gender, level of dean, and college/school. The dependent variable was the factor score. The results of the three-way ANOVA showed no statistically significant differences for null hypotheses 16, 18, 11, 20, 21, and 21 for gender, college, gender by dean, gender by college, dean by college, and gender by dean by college. Null hypothesis seventeen was rejected. The means for associate deans and assistant deans were compared. No test of simple main effects was conducted because the

interaction was not significant. The implication that can be drawn indicates that more associate deans, than assistant deans, have duties in Composite Two, Administration Leadership and Relationships.

Composite 2, Administrative Leadership and Relationships, Null Hypotheses 23, 24 and 25 - One-way ANOVA and t-tests

H_o23: For Administrative Leadership and Relationships, there is no statistical significance between colleges and leadership.

H_o24: For Administrative Leadership and Relationships, there is no statistical significance between males and females and leadership.

H_o25: For Administrative Leadership and Relationships, there is no statistical significance between associate and assistant deans and leadership.

A second statistical analysis was performed for Composite 2, Administrative Leadership and Relationships, because homogeneity of variance was not met using a three-way ANOVA. For the second statistical analysis, t-tests and a one-way ANOVA were conducted.

A one-way ANOVA was conducted for leadership and college. The test for homogeneity of variance was met. No significant differences were found between colleges/schools and leadership.

t-tests were conducted for leadership and gender, and leadership and level of dean. For the first t-test, the test of homogeneity of variance was met for leadership and gender. No significant differences were found for gender and leadership. For the second t-test, the test of homogeneity of variance was not met for leadership and level of dean. The null hypothesis for the second t-test was rejected. More associate deans than assistant deans have responsibilities for Composite 2.

The implications that can be drawn include that from both statistical analyses (number #1, three-way ANOVA, and #2, t-test), no significant differences exist for level of dean for Composite 2, Administrative Leadership and Relationships.

Composite 3: Budget, Null Hypotheses 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31 and 32 - Factor Analysis and Three-way ANOVA

H_o26: For Budget, there is no significant difference on the main effects for gender.

H_o27: For Budget, there is no significant difference on the main effects for dean.

H_o28: For Budget, there is no significant difference on the main effects for college.

H_o29: For Budget, there is no significant difference on two-way interaction for gender by dean.

H_o30: For Budget, there is no significant difference on two-way interaction for gender by college.

H_o31: For Budget, there is no significant difference on two-way interaction for dean by college.

H_o32: For Budget, there is no significant difference on three-way interaction for gender by dean by college.

Null hypotheses 26 through 32 were tested using three-way ANOVA. In the factor analysis, the independent variables were gender, level of dean, and college/school. The dependent variable was the factor score. The results of the three-way ANOVA showed no statistically significant difference for null hypotheses 26, 28, 29, 30, 31, and 32 for gender, college, gender by dean, gender by college, dean by college, and gender by dean by college.

Null hypothesis 27 was rejected. The means for level of dean were compared. No test of simple main effects was conducted because the interaction was not significant. The implications that can be drawn include that associate deans, more than assistant deans, have responsibilities for duties in Composite Three, Budget.

Additional Conclusions

Several differences exist between the positions of associate and assistant deans. The associate dean can be considered a senior position for several reasons: demographic profile, academic and professional experience, teaching and research, and potential career progression to a deanship.

Demographic Profile. Associate deans were usually male, were older, had earned the terminal degree sooner, had held more prior academic and professional positions, had taught longer, had a higher academic rank, held tenure, earned a higher salary, and maintained an active research agenda. Regarding gender, for associate deans, women were outnumbered by men by two to one. For assistant deans, females slightly outnumbered males, 55% to 45%. For the total number of respondents in the study, males outnumbered women three to one. Respondents in Kindelsperger 's (1982) study were mostly white males. In George's (1980) study, most respondents were white women. Regarding age, approximately 58% of the associate deans in this study were age 51 and older. Approximately 52% of the assistant deans ranged in age from 31 to 50 years. George (1980) and Kindelsperger (1982) also found that associate deans were usually older than assistant deans.

For associate deans, 44.1% had obtained their highest degree between 1958 and 1975. This percentage could indicate the number of individuals who may retire within the next 5 to 10 years. For assistant deans, 51.6% of the respondents had obtained their highest degree between 1981-1995. This percentage might indicate a trend of younger individuals entering higher education in recent years and now seeking professional advancement through administrative positions.

Regarding the highest degree obtained by the respondents, 95.8% of the associate deans had obtained their doctoral degree, compared with 60.3% of the assistant deans. Only 36.2% of the assistant deans had obtained a master's degree. Some of the

respondents stated that their position only required a master's degree. However, from Table 28, eight assistant deans, compared to two associate deans, indicated they were working on a doctoral degree in educational administration. In Table 29, five assistant deans indicated they would like to complete courses leading to a doctoral degree in educational administration. Based on these data, a conclusion can be made that some assistant deans are seeking doctoral degrees to further their career progression. On the other hand, other individuals may also be working on a doctoral degree in another field; however, this information was not requested on the survey. Some assistant deans stated their positions only required them to have a master's degree.

Associate deans generally earned more than assistant deans. Associate deans earned between $50,000 and $80,000 or more. Assistant deans earned between $40,000 and $80,000 or more. No respondent reported earning between $30,000-$39,000. To better understand the salary ranges, three more salary ranges should have been listed on the survey, e.g., $80,000-$89,000, $90,000-$99,000 and $100,000 or more. One salary range should have been deleted, $30,000-$39,000. A reason for different salary ranges was that some institutions and colleges/schools often pay more than others.

A higher percentage of assistant deans had 12 month contracts compared to associate deans. However, 88.9% of the respondents had 12-month contracts. The high percentage of individuals who had 12-month contracts would seem to indicate that the position was more of a full-time, versus half-time, position. Further exploration could determine why individuals have only have 9, 10, or 11 month contracts.

Regarding current academic rank, 63.5% of the associate deans hold the rank of professor as compared with 15.5% of the assistant deans. Regarding tenure status, 88.7% of the associate deans were tenured as compared with 43.8% of the assistant deans. A large percentage of assistant deans did not hold an academic rank or eligibility for tenure. Several of the assistant deans held the rank of instructor or lecturer, positions which apparently do not qualify for tenure track. Several of the assistant deans stated that their positions were

only administrative; they were not required to teach. A few assistant deans moved from another institution to accept their present administrative position.

Academic and Professional Experience Profile. Associate deans had more academic and professional experience than assistant deans. Associate deans had held other mid-level higher education positions, e.g., graduate program director, undergraduate program director, department chair, dean in a college or school, associate dean, and assistant dean. Although fewer in number, several assistant deans had similar mid-level higher education experience.

On Table 18, 20 associate deans and 17 assistant deans indicated their duties involved 100% administration. As shown in Table 22, respondents spent approximately 75% of their time on administrative responsibilities. A question should have been included on the survey that asked whether respondents' position was full- or half-time. A question remains, how many associate and assistant deans positions are supposedly half-time although in reality are full-time?

As shown in Table 11, approximately 60% of the associate deans and 56% of the assistant deans had 10 or fewer years of administrative experience in higher education. The reasons for these large percentages may be explained by the data shown in Table 9. Both assistant and associate deans had prior academic and professional experience in state or federal government positions. Other respondents had been in private practice and K-12 education. Because length of service in these other fields was not requested on the survey, these data may indicate that individuals made a career change to academia. Also, from Table 29, approximately 15 respondents indicated that they were retiring during 1998; several individuals were returning to teaching. These figures indicated a transition of younger individuals who are assuming mid-level positions. Prior administrative experience from state or federal government positions, a trend of younger individuals entering higher education, and the customary shift of individuals (faculty and/or administrative) who leave

one institution and are hired at another institution, may also explain the reasons for the high percentages of associate deans (72.3%) and assistant deans (75.8%) who have only held their positions five years or less (from Table 8). Another reason may be that some assistant and associate deanships were granted for specific terms or projects, as indicated by written comments on the surveys.

However, as shown in Table 27, more associate deans than assistant deans had participated in activities that complemented their administrative experience in higher education. For example, several more associate deans than assistant deans had held office or committee membership in a professional, national, or state organization or association, had participated in campus policy making committees, and had presented papers at professional meetings or conferences.

As shown in Table 24, associate deans appeared to have more individuals reporting to them directly than did assistant deans. Each group had faculty and department chairs reporting to associate and assistant deans. For the category "Other" the potential breadth of responsibility associate and assistant deans carry can be observed by reviewing reporting relationships and titles of positions. Further analysis could determine how these reporting relationships differed by Carnegie Classification of Institutions. A question remains, does the breadth of reporting relationships determine whether assistant and associate deans' positions are full- or half-time administrative positions?

Most associate and assistant deans would like to seek additional administrative development opportunities. As shown in Table 28, most respondents indicated they would like to attend professional conferences and read books related to higher education administration. A large percentage of respondents also stated they would like to like read books related to other areas, e.g., total quality management, fiscal management; they would also like to participate in continuing education programs related to higher education administration and information technology and its application. The participant's interest in attending programs and reading books about higher education administration and

information technology reinforces the need for continuing education for associate and assistant deans to remain vital in their positions. The respondents indicated they also would like to attend workshops and conferences on topics such as research, grant and contract administration, business strategy, time management, dealing with people, etc. Respondents from George's (1980) study stated that additional administrative preparation was needed in resource planning, communication skills, teaching strategies, curriculum development, and research methods. However, the question remains, what access and incentives do associate and assistant deans have to obtain educational administration training?

Teaching and Research. As shown in Tables 9 and 10, associate deans usually have more teaching experience than assistant deans. Approximately 60% of the associate deans had between 21 and 40 years of experience, as compared to 34% of the assistant deans. Knowing that 32.2% of the associate deans have 26 years or more of teaching experience can also be an indication of the number of individuals who may retire within the next five to ten years. A large percentage of the associate deans were only required to teach one course per semester or quarter. However, an equal percentage of associate deans and assistant deans were not required to teach each semester or quarter. Since many individuals were not required to teach, it would indicate these individuals held full-time, 12-month administrative appointments. On the other hand, several respondents wrote on the survey that they volunteered to teach one course each semester or academic year.

In Table 22, the means were reported (14.7%) for all respondents regarding time they spent on research. As shown in Table 27, associate deans maintained a more active research agenda, compared to assistant deans. During the last three years, 73.8% of the associate deans had presented papers at a professional meeting or conference, 61.3% had published a book(s) or article(s), and 64.4% had conducted a research study. For assistant deans, 38.3% had presented papers at a professional meeting or conference, 36.7% had published a book(s) or article(s), and 33.3% had conducted a research study. George

(1980) found that "the associate deans indicated greater levels of productivity in all except one area than did assistant deans and considerably greater levels in the three areas of research activities, presentation of papers at professional meetings and the publication of books and articles" (p. 33). A conclusion can be made that associate deans continue to fulfill the faculty role expectation of publishing for their field.

Job Descriptions. While faculty do not normally have specific job descriptions, administrative positions usually have written job descriptions. Regarding a written job description, more assistant deans had a written job description than did associate deans. However, many respondents indicated they did not have a written job description. The lack of a written job description would reinforce the statement by George (1980) that the roles of associate and assistant deans were determined by the needs of the dean and the organizational structure of a college or school. For example, one respondent stated (from a comment to Question 47 on the survey; data from Table 36) that a job description was needed because "not having a job description puts me at the beck and call of the dean. Staff members are 'protected' by their own job description. I fill in the gaps." Another respondent stated "Job duties are vaguely defined and shift as dean appointments shift. I am forced to leave now due to difficulties with current dean." Further, respondents were only asked if they were assistant or associate deans. Individuals were not asked what their specific title was, e.g., associate dean or assistant dean for academic programs, research; student services, budget. Not having this question on the survey limited analysis to determine whether individuals' positions were line or staff.

Line or Staff and Potential Career Progression. Debate has been vigorous about whether associate and assistant deans positions are line or staff. Three hypotheses tested perceptions about whether deans, faculty and assistant and associate deans perceived their positions as line or staff. H_o1 was retained. As shown in Table 32, 74.2% of the associate

deans and 62.7% of the assistant deans felt that deans perceived their positions to be line positions. H_o2 was rejected. This was a statistically significant relationship. As shown in Table 33, 48.4% of the associate deans and 31.7% of the assistant deans felt that faculty perceived their positions as line positions. H_o3 was rejected. This was a statistically significant relationship. As shown in Table 34, 51.9% of the associate deans and 30.5% of the assistant deans felt that they perceived their own position as line positions. There is no significant relationship between the type of position and whether their positions are line or staff as perceived by deans. However, there are significant relationships between the type of positions and whether their positions are line or staff as perceived by faculty and assistant and associate deans.

To support different perceptions of whether assistant and associate deans' positions are line or staff, Kindelsperger (1982) found that 66% of the associate deans and 66% of the assistant deans believed their positions were line positions. Kindelsperger (1982) also found that 50% of the associate deans and 63.6% of the assistant deans responded affirmatively when asked "If the position of dean were open at your school would associate deans currently at your school be seriously considered?" (p. 76). The same question was asked for assistant deans. Ninety-six percent of the associate deans and 88.4% of the assistant deans perceived they would not be considered for the position. Kindelsperger (1982) concluded that associate deans had more of a chance to become deans than did assistant deans. George (1980) found that 80% of the assistant and associate deans "believed that their deans saw their positions as line positions" (P. 40). Faculty (75%) perceived assistant and associate deans as holding line positions.

Questions about career progression for associate and assistant deans depends on whether individuals see their positions as stepping stones at their own institution or another institution. H_o5 was rejected. There was a statistically significant relationship. As shown in Table 37, 21.5% of the associate deans and 10% of the assistant deans did perceive their positions as a stepping stone to a deanship at their present institution. H_o6 was rejected.

This was a statistically significant relationship. As shown in Table 38, 55.7% of the associate deans and 33.3% of the assistant deans did perceive their positions as stepping stones to a deanship at another institution. H_O7 was retained. This was not a statistically significant relationship. As shown in Table 39, 41% of the associate deans and 31.7% of the assistant deans said their interest in becoming a dean at their present institution had been affected. H_O8 was rejected. This was a statistically significant relationship. As shown in Table 40, 49.2% of the associate deans and 28.8% of the assistant deans said their interest in becoming a dean at another institution had been affected. Assistant deans did not perceive their positions as a stepping stone at either their present institution or another institution. Associate deans perceived their positions as stepping stones at another institution, but not at their own institution. Assistant deans and associate deans did not perceive their interest in becoming a dean at their present institution or another institution had been affected.

Kindelsperger (1982) found that 90.7% of the associate deans and 83.8% of the assistant deans did not perceive their positions as stepping stones to deanships. George (1980) found that 79% of the assistant and associate deans felt their experience "was not likely to encourage them to become deans" (p. 36). However, George (1980) found that 57% "viewed the associate or assistant deanship as a way of preparing for a dean's position" (P. 39). Kindelsperger (1982) asked associate and assistant deans their potential career path after leaving their positions. A question regarding potential career path was not included for this study. However, some individuals wrote comments on the survey. Some said their positions were for fixed-terms, e.g., three years, or they served at the "discretion of the dean."

A conclusion can be made that an associate dean has a better chance to become a dean than does an assistant dean. However, a few questions remain unanswered: How often do associate deans seek deanships? What motivates associate deans to become deans?

Does tenure as an associate dean provide an adequate professional foundation for individuals to become deans?

Composite Scores for Curriculum, Administration Leadership and Relationship, and Budget. For Curriculum, the implication that can be drawn indicates that female associate deans have more responsibility than female assistant deans. Male associate and male assistant deans were almost evenly split about this responsibility. For Composite Two, Administration Leadership and Relationships, and Composite Three, Budget, the implication that can be drawn indicates that more associate deans than assistant deans have these responsibilities. A conclusion can be made that associate and assistant deans had the most responsibility for Composite #2, Administrative Leadership and Relationships, then Composite #1, Curriculum, and finally Composite #3, Budget.

Final Conclusions: Several respondents made comments regarding section IV of the survey. Individuals stated that their positions included other items than were included in Section IV. For example, one respondent wrote on the survey "each associate dean has specific charges - mine don't really address many of your areas. Program development, advising, promoting, program, etc., are more pertinent for me. You don't have these listed." A conclusion can be made that additional study regarding role theory is needed. Data could be gathered to better define the major roles (academic, student affairs, fiscal / budget) of associate and assistant deans. After major roles were defined, specific responsibilities could be identified (e.g., sub-scales). With additional study and research, the items in section IV need to be reviewed and expanded to more accurately reflect specific roles. However, a question remains, can universal roles and differences in the role (e.g., line or staff) be defined for assistant and associate deans?

As mentioned throughout this section, other questions could have been asked on the survey. However, a much longer survey would have been unmanageable. The researcher

estimated that respondents would need 15 to 20 minutes to complete the survey for this study. The return rate for this study was 55.5%. Respondents would have needed more time to complete a longer survey, which could have resulted in a negative impact on the return rate. A shorter survey may not have yielded enough data to be meaningful.

Contributions to the research regarding the roles of assistant and associate deans have been found from this study. Prior studies about the roles of assistant and associate deans were over 15 years old. While additional questions remain about the roles of assistant and associate deans, this study provides an update from previous studies and helps to fill in the complex but still incomplete mosaic of university administration.

Limitations

The results of this study can only be generalized to the assistant and associate deans from those classifications selected from the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of teaching in states covered by Colleges of the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools (SACS), a regional accrediting agency.

Recommendations for Further Study

This research investigated perceptions only of associate and assistant deans regarding their roles in the colleges or schools related to the disciplines of business, education, and arts and sciences within four different classifications of institutions [Research Universities I and II and Doctoral Universities I and II], as described by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching (The Chronicle of Higher Education, 1997). In SACS institutions, to more fully understand the roles of associate and assistant deans, additional research should be completed. Some further research questions would include:

1. What perceptions are held by associate and assistant deans in colleges and schools of business, education, and arts and sciences in accreditation agencies other than SACS?

2. What perceptions are held by associate and assistant deans in colleges and schools of nursing, health sciences, engineering, and medicine?

3. What perceptions are held by associate and assistant deans in administrative units as opposed to academic units?

4. What perceptions are held by associate and assistant deans in administrative roles within academic units?'

5. What are the roles of associate and assistant deans at private, four-year higher education institutions?

6. What kinds of formal education and administrative training would best serve associate and assistant deans?

7. What is the career path for associate and assistant deans? Do career paths vary by gender?

8. How do associate and assistant deans handle career management? Does career management vary by gender?

9. What types of barriers exist for women in becoming associate and assistant deans?

10. What is the leadership role of associate and assistant deans? Do leadership roles vary by gender?

11. What curriculum should be developed for associate and assistant deans' professional development?

The role of assistant and associate deans varies depending upon the organizational structure of a college or school and the needs of a dean. The number of assistant and associate dean positions' appear to be increasing at institutions across the country. Although assistant and associate deans play important support functions for deans, their roles remain ambiguous. As an integral part of mid-level management, assistant and associate deans often learn their roles on-the-job. Further research is also needed to determine what type of curriculum needs to be developed for assistant and associate deans' professional development. For example, curriculum could cover time management, fiscal management and policies, strategic planning, policy analysis, organizational development, higher education administration, leadership theory and practice, supervisory skills, and career management. Instead of a piecemeal approach, a comprehensive program needs to be developed that would benefit the individuals in the roles as well as their institutions.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Final List of Institutions in the Study

FINAL LIST OF INSTITUTIONS IN THE STUDY

Auburn University
Baylor University
Clark Atlanta University
Clemson University
College of William and Mary
Duke University
Emory University
Florida Atlantic University
Florida Institute of Technology
Florida International University
George Mason University
Georgia State University
Georgia Institute of Technology
Louisiana State University
Louisiana Tech University
Middle Tennessee State University
Mississippi State University
North Carolina State University
Nova Southeastern University
Old Dominion University
Rice University
Southern Methodist University
Tennessee State University
Texas A&M University
Texas A&M at Commerce
Texas Christian University
Texas Woman's University
Texas Southern University
Texas Tech University
Tulane University
The Florida State University
The University of Alabama
The University of Alabama at Birmingham
The University of Alabama in Huntsville
The University of Georgia
The University of Memphis
The University of North Carolina
at Chapel Hill
The University of Tennessee at Knoxville
University of Central Florida
University of Florida
University of Houston
University of Kentucky
University of Louisville
University of Miami
University of Mississippi
University of New Orleans
University of North Carolina-Greensboro
University of North Texas
University of South Carolina
University of South Florida
University of Southern Mississippi
University of Southwestern Louisiana
University of Texas at Austin
University of Texas at Arlington
University of Texas at Dallas
University of Virginia
Vanderbilt University
Virginia Commonwealth University
Virginia Tech
Wake Forest University

APPENDIX B

E-mail Message Sent to Deans

April-May, 1998

The purpose of this letter is to seek your assistance with my dissertation study examining the roles of assistant and associate deans.

Because the names of assistant and associate deans in your college or school are not readily available, I am requesting your assistance in providing me the name, title, postal mailing address, e-mail address, and telephone and fax numbers for each assistant and associate dean in your college or school. Complete anonymity of associate and assistant deans participating in the study will be maintained.

A copy of the instrument is available at http://www.etsu.edu/scs/survey.htm. All assistant and associate deans participating in the study will receive a hardcopy of the instrument for them to complete and return by postal mail.

If you have any questions or comments, please feel free to call me at (423) 439-7058 or by e-mail at cuffmand@etsu.edu.

Sincerely,

Darcey M. Cuffman

APPENDIX C

Cover letter sent to Associate and Assistant Deans

June 22, 1998

Dear Assistant or Associate Dean:

The purpose of this letter is to seek your assistance with my dissertation study examining the roles of assistant and associate deans.

Your name, title, and address were provided by your dean, or his/her designee, after receipt of an e-mail message from me in which I explained the study and requested the dean's assistance. For some individuals, information was obtained from your institution's web pages or from telephone calls. Now, I am using this means to request your assistance in completing the survey instrument. The instrument takes about 15 to 20 minutes to complete. Please also feel free to make any comments on the instrument. A stamped, addressed return envelope is enclosed for your convenience.

The Informed Consent (enclosed) will explain about being a research subject in my doctoral dissertation study. It is important that you read this material carefully before deciding if you wish to be a volunteer. If you do not choose to volunteer, then do not return the survey instrument. Either way, your complete anonymity will be maintained.

Sincerely,

Darcey M. Cuffman
Video Resource Coordinator
Office of Distance Education
Doctoral Student
ETSU's Dept. of Educational Leadership
and Policy Analysis

Enclosures

APPENDIX D

Institutional Review Board form

East Tennessee State University
INFORMED CONSENT

PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR Darcey M. Cuffman

TITLE OF PROJECT A Study of the Roles of Assistant and Associate Deans in Institutions Accredited by the Colleges of the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools

This Informed Consent will explain about being a research subject in an doctoral dissertation study. It is important that you read this material carefully and then decide if you wish to be a volunteer. If you do not choose to volunteer, do not return the survey instrument.

PURPOSE

The purposes of this doctoral dissertation study are to analyze the roles of assistant and associate deans in the colleges or schools related to the disciplines of business, education, and arts and sciences within four different classifications of institutions [Research Universities I and II and Doctoral Universities I and II], as described by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching.

The objectives of this study are to determine whether

1) assistant and associate deans perceive their positions as line or staff;

2) male and female assistant and associate deans perceive their positions differently;

3) years of experience are related to how assistant and associate deans perceive their roles, and

4) assistant and associate deans in professional schools (e.g., business and education) and perceive their roles differently than assistant and associate deans in arts and sciences (or equivalent).

DURATION

The expected duration of the subject's participation is approximately 30 minutes. Thirty minutes will be ample time to complete the instrument and return to the principal investigator.

PROCEDURES

Subjects will be requested to complete the questionnaire and return to the principal investigator.

POSSIBLE RISKS/DISCOMFORTS

There are no risks and/or discomforts by a volunteer's involvement in this study.

PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR: Darcey Cuffman

TITLE OF PROJECT: A Study of the Roles of Assistant and Associate Deans in Institutions Accredited by the Colleges of the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools

POSSIBLE BENEFITS and/or COMPENSATION

Each volunteer has the option to receive a copy of the results of the study. Each volunteer must indicate his or her interest in a copy of the results when the completed instrument is returned to the researcher. None of the volunteers will be paid or reimbursed by their participation in this study.

CONTACT FOR QUESTIONS

If you have any questions, problems or research-related problems at any time, you may call Darcey Cuffman, at (423) 439-7058 or Dr. Marie Hill (researcher's advisor) at (423) 439-4430. You may call the Chairman of the Institutional Review Board at (423) 439-6134 for any questions you may have about your rights as a research subject.

CONFIDENTIALITY

Every attempt will be made to see that my study results are kept confidential. A copy of the records from this study will be stored for at least 10 years after the end of this research. The results of this study may be published and/or presented at meetings without naming me as a subject. Although your rights and privacy will be maintained, the ETSU Department of Educational Leadership and Policy Analysis has access to the study records. My records will be kept completely confidential according to current legal requirements. They will not be revealed unless required by law, or as noted above.

VOLUNTARY PARTCIPATION

As stated earlier, only individuals who knowingly consent to participating in this project will return survey forms to the researcher.

_____

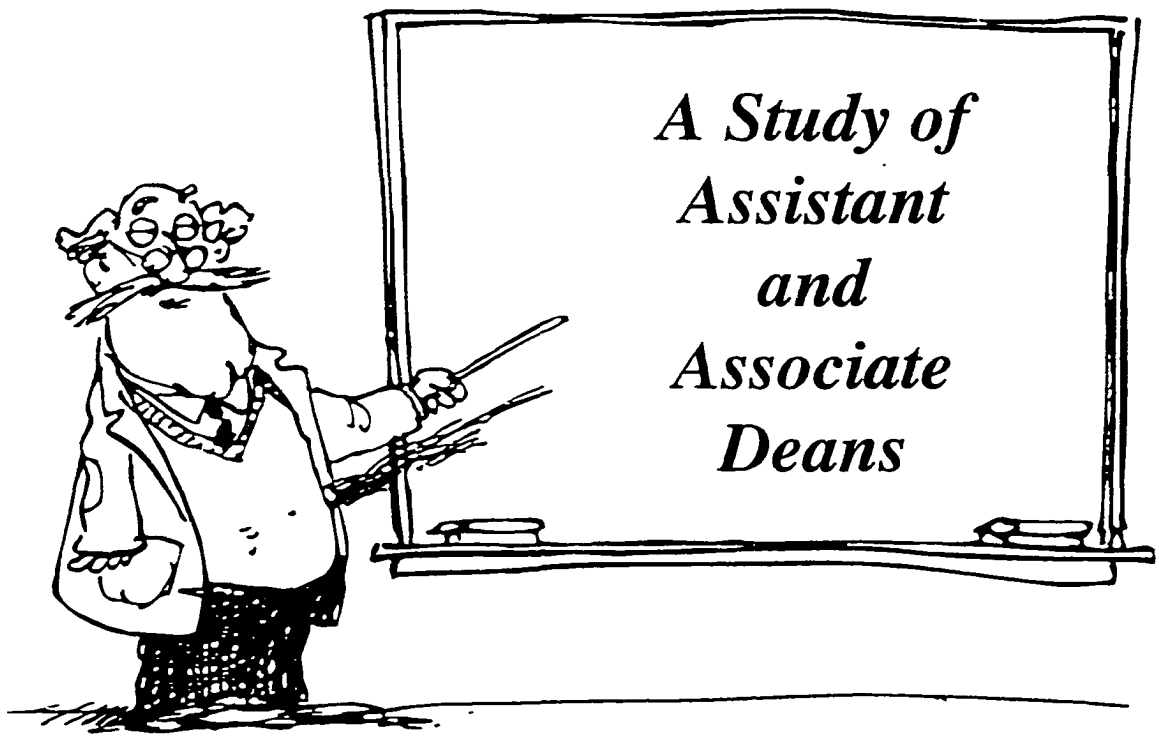
SIGNATURE OF VOLUNTEER DATE

_____

SIGNATURE OF INVESTIGATOR DATE

APPENDIX E

Instrument



Please return the completed survey by _____ to:

Darcey Cuffman
Office of Distance Education
School of Continuing Studies
East Tennessee State University
Box 70427
Johnson City, TN 37614-0427

e-mail: cuffmand@etsu.edu
phone: (423) 439-7058
fax: (423) 439-8564

1

The purpose of this survey is to gather data for a study about associate and assistant deans. Data received will be anonymous. Thank you in advance for your participation.

Directions: Please write your responses to questions in the following sections:

Section I: Background Data

1. **Gender:** _____ **Male** _____ **Female**

2. **Age:** _____ **30 years or under** _____ **41 to 50 years** _____ **61 years or over**
   _____ **31 to 40 years** _____ **51 to 60 years**

3. **What is the highest degree you have attained (bachelor's, master's, doctorate), year awarded, and discipline and area(s) of specialization?**

Highest Degree	Year of Graduation	Area of Specialization

4. **Currently, are you an** _____ **Associate Dean** OR _____ **Assistant Dean?**

5. **Currently, are you in the College or School of**
   _____ **Education**
   _____ **Business**
   _____ **Arts & Sciences (or similarly named college/discipline)**

6. **Including this year (1997-98), how long have you held this position in your institution?** _____

7. **Please place a check by all prior academic/professional positions you have held at any institution:**
   _____ Interim Administrator
   (e.g., Vice-President, Dean, Associate Vice-President, Associate Dean, Director)
   _____ Dean in College/School
   _____ Department chair in your discipline
   _____ Department chair of a unit not within your discipline
   _____ Graduate Program Director
   _____ Undergraduate Program Director
   _____ Associate Dean
   _____ Assistant Dean
   _____ Teaching position
   _____ Professional position in a state or federal government
   _____ Professional position in a national or state professional organization
   _____ Military service
   _____ Other: Please specify _____

8. **Including this year, how many years have you taught in higher education?** _____

9. **Including this year, how many years of administrative experience do you have in higher education?**
   _____

10. Current Academic Rank

_____ Instructor/Lecturer
_____ Assistant Professor
_____ Associate Professor
_____ Professor
_____ None

Tenure Status

_____ Tenured
_____ Tenure Track
_____ Not eligible for tenure

2

11. a) **Are you required to teach each semester/quarter?** _____ Yes _____ No
b) **If so, how many courses each semester/quarter?** _____ 1 _____ 2 _____ 3

12. a) Current salary range:

_____ $30,000 - $39,000
_____ $40,000 - $49,000
_____ $50,000 - $59,000
_____ $60,000 - $69,000
_____ $70,000 - $79,000
_____ $80,000 or more

b) **Your contract is for _____ months?**

13. What percentage of your time do you spend in each of the following areas?

_____ Administrative responsibilities
_____ Classroom teaching
_____ Research
_____ Other: Please specify _____

Section II: Line or Staff Positions for Assistant and Associate Deans

[A **line** position would be accountable for program development, implementation, and evaluation in areas of responsibility; also accountable for personnel within the program(s) of responsibility. A **staff** position would provide advisement in the area of expertise with authority or advice confined to a subject area.]

14. Does the dean perceive your position to be line or staff?
_____ Line _____ Staff

15. Do <u>you</u> think that the faculty perceive your position to be line or staff?
_____ Line _____ Staff _____ Both line and staff _____ I don't know

16. Do <u>you</u> perceive your position as line or staff?
_____ Line _____ Staff _____ Both line and staff _____ I don't know

17. Do you have a written job description? _____ Yes _____ No _____ I don't know

18. What personnel report directly to you?

_____ Support staff (secretaries, etc.)
_____ Faculty
_____ Department chairs
_____ Other (<u>please state title only, no names</u>) _____

19. When you became assistant or associate dean, did you receive additional salary compensation?

_____ Minimal (adjustment for inflation)
_____ Receive a stipend
_____ Approximately 10-20 percent above current salary
_____ Approximately 21-30 percent above current salary
_____ More than 30 percent above current salary
_____ Did not receive additional compensation

20. How many assistant or associate deans hold appointments in <u>your</u> School or College?
_____ One _____ Two _____ Three _____ Four _____ Five

Section III: Professional Development

21. In which of the following activities have you participated during the past three years? (Please mark all that apply.)

_____ visited similar programs in your discipline on other campuses as part of your position, to gain and share ideas
_____ held office or committee membership in a professional organization other than in your discipline
_____ held office or committee membership in a national or state association in your discipline
_____ participated in campus policy making committee
_____ presented papers at professional meeting or conference
_____ published book(s) or article(s)
_____ conducted research study
_____ served as a consultant
_____ other professional projects: _____

22. What formal education administration training/education have you obtained during the past three years? (Please mark all that apply.)

_____ completed courses leading to doctoral degree in educational administration (higher education emphasis)
_____ completed courses leading to master's degree in educational administration (higher education emphasis)
_____ participated in continuing education programs related to higher education administration
_____ participated in programs related to information technology and its applications
_____ attended professional conferences related to higher education administration
_____ read books related to higher education administration
_____ read books related to other areas (e.g., total quality management, fiscal management)
_____ other: _____

23. What experiences or expertise would you like to seek for your own continued administrative development? (Please mark all that apply.)

_____ complete courses leading to doctoral degree in educational administration (higher education emphasis)
_____ complete courses leading to master's degree in educational administration (higher education emphasis)
_____ participate in continuing education programs related to higher education administration
_____ participate in programs related to information technology and its applications
_____ attend professional conferences related to higher education administration
_____ read books related to higher education administration
_____ read books related to other areas (e.g., total quality management, fiscal management)
_____ other: _____

Section IV: Assistant/Associate Dean's Roles/Functions

Directions: From the following list of items, circle the appropriate number to indicate the reality of your role.

Scale:	1 = strongly disagree	2 = disagree	3 = undecided	4 = agree	5 = strongly agree
	N/A = not applicable				

24.	Participates with the dean and department chairs in college/school responsibility	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
25.	Considers student issues an integral responsibility	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
26.	Evaluates curriculum work	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
27.	Determines academic standards for students	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
28.	Changes academic programs through program evaluation	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
29.	Displays leadership for academic projects	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
30.	Proposes strategic planning for college goals; also for curricular., personnel and fiscal needs	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
31.	Participates in a personnel development and evaluation program	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
32.	Prepares/revises college budgets	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
33.	Oversees the internal allocation of budget funds	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
34.	Administers college budget	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
35.	Acts on behalf of dean; mediates in relationships with top administrators and department chairpersons, faculty members, and staff	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
36.	Fosters faculty involvement in institutional activities	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
37.	Participates in decisions concerning college promotions, tenures, reassignments	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
38.	Initiates improvements and innovating curriculum	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
39.	Oversees and manages interdepartmental activities	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
40.	Arbitrates conflicts	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
41.	Teaches and carries out scholarly work	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
42.	Participates in research studies and publishing	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
43.	Communicates verbally and in writing to faculty, administrators, and students	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
44.	Performs clerical work, if necessary	1	2	3	4	5	N/A

Section V: Stated Perceptions by Assistant and Associate Deans

45. What three things do you enjoy most about the assistant or associate dean's role? Please elaborate.

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

46. What three things do you most dislike about the assistant or associate dean's role? Please elaborate.

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

47. Would you recommend any changes in your position?

_____ Yes _____ No If yes, please elaborate.

48. Do you see the position of assistant or associate dean as a stepping stone to a deanship at your present institution?

_____ Yes _____ No

49. Do you see the position of assistant or associate dean as a stepping stone to a deanship at another institution?

_____ Yes _____ No

50. Has being an assistant or associate dean affected your interest in becoming a dean at your present institution?

_____ Yes _____ No

51. Has being an assistant or associate dean affected your interest in becoming a dean at another institution?

_____ Yes _____ No

Thank you for taking the time to complete this survey!

APPENDIX F

Followup Letter sent to Associate and Assistant Deans

July 22, 1998

Dear Assistant or Associate Dean:

The purpose of this letter is to follow up regarding my dissertation study examining the roles of assistant and associate deans. I want to thank everyone who completed my survey instrument.

If you have not completed the survey instrument, could you please finish and return the survey as soon as possible? The instrument takes about 15 to 20 minutes to complete, and your complete anonymity will be maintained. If you need another survey, please send me an e-mail (cuffmand@etsu.edu), and provide your name, institution, and postal mailing address.

Several individuals requested a copy of the results of my study; however, I was not able to read some signatures and/or addresses. If you would like a copy of the study results, contact me at cuffmand@etsu.edu, and include your name, institution, and postal mailing address.

Thank you again for your contribution to this study.

Sincerely,

Darcey M. Cuffman
Video Resource Coordinator
Office of Distance Education
Doctoral Student
ETSU's Dept. of Educational Leadership
and Policy Analysis

VITA

DARCEY MARLENE CUFFMAN

Personal Data:	Date of Birth: October 20, 1953 Place of Birth: Holloman Air Force Base, New Mexico
Education:	Public Schools, Rantoul, Illinois Parkland College, Champaign, Illinois; A.S., Law Enforcement Education, 1978 Eastern Illinois University, Charleston, Illinois; B.S., Career Occupations, 1981 Eastern Illinois University, Charleston, Illinois; M.S. Technology, 1987
Professional Experience and Employment:	Federal Bureau of Investigation, Washington, D.C., 1971-1972 University of Illinois, 1972-1990 George Kerasotes Theatres Corporation, Champaign and Rantoul, Illinois, 1977-1982; 1982-1986 East Tennessee State University, School of Continuing Studies, Office of Distance Education, 1990-present
Publications:	Co-authored publications and made single and co-presentations about distance learning, 1994 - present
Honors:	Kappa Delta Pi Phi Delta Kappa Phi Kappa Phi